

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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Observations on the Structure and Functions of the Nervous System, illustrated with Tables. By Alexander Monro, M.D. President of the Royal College of Physicians, and Professor of Physic, Anatomy, and Surgery, in the University of Edinburgh. Folio. 2l. 12s. 6d. Creech, Edinburgh; Johnson, London.

THERE is probably no part of physiology which will with such constancy elude the most diligent investigation, as the functions of the nerves. Their powers are so considerable, instantaneously exerted, executed with force and energy, and, though occasionally remitted, yet capable of being renewed and continued for many years with a vigour almost unimpaired, that, since our observations can furnish us with few similar phenomena, we can only in a very remote degree investigate their analogies and relations. But there is still a more powerful obstacle to our researches; these exertions, so numerous and varied, have sometimes no perceptible origin, or one little proportioned to the effects. Volition, a simple act of the mind, impels the muscles to exert a force which no mechanical power can imitate; and, in the human body, there is a circle of motions, depending on each other, in which we cannot distinguish the cause or the effect, nor trace their source from any operation of a distinct principle. These are difficulties which must necessarily remain; for a power, different from matter, in its common forms, or possibly in its nature, can neither be an object of the sense, or even of the intellect: a visionary philosopher may pursue his airy castles, but they will be always the phantoms of a heated imagination, which the torch of truth will immediately dissipate.

Modern physiologists almost constantly use the term vibrations, to express the mode of communication in the nervous system; and, though this word has been the subject of much debate, and of some confusion, we shall continue to employ it. But we mean not to be confined by the fetters of a system, or implicitly to follow those philosophers who think the vibrations exist in the solid substance of the nerves; or those who, with more reason, suppose them to be a peculiar state of a fluid inherent in that system. It is also necessary to remark that, when in the future article we speak of the communication in the brain, and the effects resulting from it, we do not mean to exclude an immaterial principle.—The subject is already sufficiently embarrassed, without any additional difficulties; and, though the communications of fibres in the many different parts of the brain may sometimes be supposed to exclude the necessity of such a principle, yet a true philosopher will not, on that account, deny its existence. Indeed there are many other inexplicable phenomena, which require its assistance, if we had not another and a better foundation for believing it.

The present work is splendid in its appearance; for, independent of the printing, which is very elegantly executed, it is adorned with forty-seven tables. We must, however, confess that, in the latter, we were much disappointed; they are generally deficient in elegance, and sometimes even in distinctness; but the curiosity of the subjects compensates for the former defect, though it makes us feel the latter with additional force. In a work like this, the favourite subject of its author, the labour and the amusement of many years, we cannot easily allow of an apology—like, ‘want of time obliging him to trust the dissection to other hands,’ or, ‘an imperfect sketch from memory;’ yet these and similar excuses sometimes occur. After some appearances too have been allowed to be microscopical deceptions, the delineations of these appearances must add to the bulk, rather than to the value of the work. A minute criticism might detect many other defects; but we would equally avoid indiscriminate commendations, or an anxiety to discover errors.

The Observations are chiefly confined to those facts and remarks which have escaped the attention, or which have not been clearly ascertained by other anatomists and physiologists. The first section of the first chapter relates to the circulation in the head, and is illustrated by a table of the rete mirabile Galeni, which is found to be a division of the internal carotid into small serpentine branches.

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This arrangement is peculiarly useful in brutes, who are destined to the prone position of the head, and it is confined to them; in men the same effect is chiefly produced by the ascent of the blood, and by the turns and angles of the carotids. Our author then examines the structure and uses of the sinuses. He considers them as veins calculated, from their structure, to prevent either too great accumulation of blood in the head, or obstruction to the circulation. The practical remarks are, that cutting the temporal artery may be of service, by changing the course of the blood, if its quantity is not much diminished; and that the proposal of trepanning the head in apoplexy, phrenitis, &c. to obtain the pressure of the air on the over-distended vessels, can be of no service, and may be injurious. The chapter concludes with an account of an experiment to prove, that a person hanged dies rather from a stoppage of respiration than fullness of the vessels of the head, as Petit and others supposed.

The second chapter, on the membranes of the brain, contains little remarkable, except that the pia mater, when it covers the ventricles, has fewer blood-vessels than when it is extended over the other parts of the brain. The third and fourth chapter, on the communications of the ventricles, will not be intelligible in an abridgment. The author has discovered the communication of the two lateral ones; and finds that *all* the ventricles communicate with each other, but that they have no communication with the spinal marrow. The plate, however, which relates to this part, cannot be said to add to the clearness of the description.—The next chapter relates to the lymphatics of the brain. The author endeavours to establish their existence by analogy rather than by observation; yet there are many facts, both in Haller and Hewson, that are more pointed and satisfactory, in this view, than the arguments of Dr. Monro. The infundibulum, he thinks, is a hollow tube; and the glandula pituitaria of the conglobate kind. The ventricles, by our author's account, seem to be chiefly serviceable in extending the surface of the brain, and probably of the pia mater. But this affords little room for deduction; if their surfaces had been cineritious, it might have materially assisted our enquiries, but they are chiefly medullary. We meet, indeed, with cineritious matter in the substance of the brain and nerves, as within the fornix, &c. it is therefore probable that in that situation its purposes are answered as well as if it were on the surface. This part of the brain is probably very important; and from whatever source its energy may be derived, the cortical part seems to be a very necessary assistant. It ends abruptly, and the division between it and the medulla is accurately defined.

The eighth chapter is 'on the supposed origin and formation of the nerves.' Dr. Monro observes, that the brain not only supplies the nerves with their medulla, but probably serves some other useful purpose; for there are many transverse bundles of fibres in it, and animals which have this organ very small, seem to feel as acutely, and exert their muscles as violently, as the human species. Indeed he seems willing to suppose that the brain is rather connected with the nerves, than the source and origin of them, and that the latter may exist independent of the former. We shall select his arguments, as they contain some curious facts.

' 1. In children delivered at the full time, plump and well formed in their trunk and limbs, I have observed the substance which supplied the place of the brain not more bulky than a small nut, and, instead of containing a white medullary substance, it was of a red colour resembling a clot of blood: and small cords, occupying the place of the optic nerves, were likewise of a red colour. Yet the spinal marrow, and all the nerves from it, had the ordinary size and appearance.

' 2. In a monstrous kitten, with two bodies and the appearance of one head, I found the spinal marrow of one of the bodies connected with a brain and cerebellum of the common shape and size. But the spinal marrow of the other body, though equally large, had only a small button of medullary substance at its upper end, without a suitable brain or cerebellum.

' 3. In living frogs, I have repeatedly cut across the spinal marrow, or the trunk of the sciatic nerve, and fed the animal for upwards of a year thereafter. In some of them, the sciatic nerves were rejoined; but in none of my experiments did the nerves under the incision recover their powers; yet the nerves under the incision seemed, at the end of that period, as large in the limb in which the experiment was made, as they were in the sound limb.

' Whilst these facts seem to prove that the nerves may exist without the brain, and that they are not to be considered, according to the common idea, as being merely ducts which convey a fluid from a gland to distant parts, they seem also to shew, that there is an energy of the nerves, independent of the energy of the brain; and, therefore, lead us to attempt to prove more fully that the nerves possess such an energy, and to discover the structure on which the possession of the energy depends.'

In the ninth chapter, which is not easily abridged, and which our limits will not permit us to transcribe, we are presented with a very accurate description of the spinal marrow, and the nerves arising from it. It is remarkable, that nature seems to have united every bundle of nerves, as they come from the spine, with a peculiar anxiety, to those above

or below, by means of some detached fibres, or by those of a ganglion. The consequences of this union is explained in a future chapter; and the plate, which illustrates it, is one of the most distinct and useful of the whole collection. Another circumstance which deserves attention is, the deep fissures between the sides of the spinal marrow, which, our author thinks, may explain the partial affection in hæmiplegiæ.

The substance of the nerves is more brown than that of the medullary part of the brain, and they are larger in their progress than at their supposed origin. The optic nerve, and the portio mollis of the auditory nerve, seem to acquire cineritious matter from the pia mater, which is continued through their whole course, so soon as they reach the organs on which they are to be dispersed. It is also evident, that the nerves receive support and nourishment in their progress; for a nerve, after it has been long divided, does not appear to shrink, or to have lost its substance: and the blood-vessels perform every function, though the muscles are paralytic.

Dr. Monro next describes the appearance of the nerves in their course: they seem to consist of 'a semipellucid substance, in which a more white and opaque fibrous-looking matter appears to be disposed, in transverse and serpentine lines;' but when the nerve is stretched, these lines disappear. They are, in our author's opinion, folds or joints, to adapt them for different states of flexion or distention; and probably the structure is, in no degree, connected with their peculiar functions. Our author, who has observed these folds to be numerous within the cranium, and where the nerve is nearly fixed in its place, thinks, that they may be also useful in increasing the surface of the nerve; but, by his description, the surface is no more increased by these serpentine fibres, than that of a leaf by the spiral fibres in its substance, which have been called the tracheæ or vasa aërea.

The connexion of the nerves is the next subject of attention; they are joined at acute angles, when they pursue the same course; at obtuse angles, when they run in opposite directions; and they are also united in hard bodies, which have been frequently described by anatomists, under the name of ganglia. The first mode of communication, which has been styled plexus, was examined many years ago by our author, in that of the arm. He found, as he expected, that 'in the plexuses the fibres of the different trunks were intermixed, and that every nerve, under the plexus, consisted of fibres of all the nerves, which were tied together above its origin from the plexus.' The optic nerves, though intimately united, are so soft, that it is not easy to trace their fibres; but our author

thinks he has seen a partial decussation of them. It is, indeed, highly probable that the union is far from being complete. The connection of nerves in opposite directions, seems to be of a similar kind. The principal example is the portio dura of the auditory nerve, which is united to the second and third branches of the fifth pair, in the face: these our author has traced, both in a man and an ox. The nerves are also very intimately united in their course, while they run in one common sheath. The reasons for this arrangement are judiciously detailed by our author; and we shall need no apology for inserting his remarks.

‘ The chief intention of nature, in this very solicitous intermixture of the nervous fibrils, is, I apprehend, to lessen the danger with which accidents or diseases, affecting the trunks of the nerves, would, without these combinations, have been attended.

‘ Thus, let us suppose that two nerves are sufficient to supply the flexors and extensors of the fore arm; it is evidently better for us, that the one-half of each nerve goes to the flexors, and the other half of each to the extensors, than that the whole of the first nerve should have gone to the flexors, and the whole of the second to the extensors. For if, by accident or disease, one of these nerves should be cut across, or lose its powers, we should, on the first supposition, preserve one half of the power both of flexion and extension, which would surely be preferable to our possessing fully the flexion, without any power of extension.

‘ If a still greater number of nerves is employed to supply the flexors and extensors, the loss of power, arising from an accident happening to one of the trunks of the nerves, will be felt in a much smaller degree; thus, in the arm, where five trunks are found, a fifth part only of the power would be lost.

‘ 1. Notwithstanding we have observed that the fibres of the nerves, in this course, are much more intimately intermixed than has been supposed, still as their branches do not anastomose, there is little or no reason for believing that the energy of one fibre can directly affect that of a neighbouring or contiguous fibre, or that the sympathy of nerves can depend directly on their connection in their progress. We are, therefore, led to refer it, in the first place, to their connections in the brain, where we have found there are many more medullary fibres than are sufficient to form a bulk equal to all the nerves, and where, besides, many of the fibres seem evidently intended to connect opposite sides of the brain.

‘ 2. But although we cannot, from the intermixture of the nervous fibres in their course, account for their sympathy, but are obliged to refer the cause to their connections in the brain, in which the feeling principle is seated; yet, from finding that each small branch of a nerve is derived from various sources, we perceive,

perceive, that an injury done to it may affect and irritate the brain in various and distant places, and, these reacting, we understand better how a sufferance by sympathy may become extensive or universal, than we do, when we conceive that each nerve is derived from a single small portion only of the brain.

‘3. As different nerves, intermixed, are supplied by branches of the same artery, and that the arteries furnish pia mater and cortical matter to the nerves in their progress, and evidently influence their energy, it may be a question meriting attention, whether sympathy of nerves may, in some measure, depend on the irritation and reaction of their accompanying blood-vessels?’

We must pursue our account of this splendid work in another article, and shall conclude the present with a few remarks. The chief additions which are made to the anatomy of the brain afford little room for reflection, or for deduction. While we are ignorant of the uses of the ventricles, their communications are of less importance; and the only consequences which we can derive from our improved state of science are, that, in the brain, the nerves are united, and the communication between each part of the body, in this common receptacle, is apparently free and unembarrassed. But even this general remark must be received with great limitations. The hæmiplegia affects one eye and ear; the hæmicrania is so nice in its distinctions, that the patient can frequently draw a line between pain and ease, between disease and health. If we look more nearly, we shall probably find, that this free intercourse is useful rather to the corporeal than the mental functions; and that it is only in an intellectual view that the brain can be styled the common sensorium. In this way it will materially assist the doctrine of the association of ideas; and the mere materialist will find some difficulty in excluding the vibrations of sensation, while those of intellect maintain a free passage. It is evident, however, that this passage must really exist; for, in hæmiplegia, while one part is only injured in sense and motion, the intellects are more slightly and more generally affected; while the nerves of one side have their peculiar functions almost entirely destroyed, the internal senses remain, but with diminished vigour. If these well-known facts be compared with the reasoning of our author, which we have just transcribed, they will probably be found to give a very important assistance to our opinion.

With respect to the origin of the nerves, Dr. Monro has not, we think, fully availed himself of the arguments which may be drawn from the comparative anatomy. Perhaps he was afraid that it might lead him into more important metaphysical disquisitions; into those dangerous systems of mate-

riality, where narrow limits bound truth and falsehood; and one improper step may plunge the author into, at least apparent, infidelity. But, if Reason be not abused, if it be permitted to pursue its paths with candour and with caution, it may be followed with a steady confidence, with a defiance of danger. In the present case, if our limits would permit, we could more clearly show, from the above mentioned sources, that the brain and the nerves are almost distinct systems; and that, though they are connected, the operations and functions of each are peculiarly appropriated, and independent of the other.—But we shall defer the rest of our remarks, which are more nearly connected with the subsequent parts of this volume, till the appearance of a future Number.

An Essay on Laborious Parturition, in which the Division of the Symphysis Pubis is particularly considered. By William Osborn, M. D. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Cadell.

THOUGH novelty attracts by its splendor, and apparent improvements are eagerly caught at by the restless and impatient spirit, which disdains a common tract, yet the cool dictates of reason will be at last attended to, and every pretension valued at its true rate. We have already ventured to predict the downfall of the new operation, viz. the division of the symphysis; and the respectable publication now before us will very materially contribute to it. As we had formerly been misinformed on this subject, we have undesignedly misled our readers, by saying that the operation had been performed in some parts of Great Britain; but this was a mistake, which, as it arose from the relation of some experiments on the dead body, candour obliges us to point out. This is a subject, however, which decorum will not permit us to enlarge on: we shall therefore give a concise, and we hope an exact, view of our author's opinion.

Dr. Osborn begins with observing, that the efforts of nature do not so much require assistance, in this function, from our eagerness to interfere, as from some real difference in the conformation of the human species, when compared with brutes. On account of the operation of gravity, the human fœtus is secured by an irregular contexture of bone, and the pelvis exposed to deformity, from its bearing, in different parts, almost the whole weight of the body. It is obvious, therefore, that parturition is impeded by many causes, which cannot affect the brute creation. Where, however, necessity demands the sacrifice of one life, for obvious reasons, he thinks that

that of the child less valuable; but, both in the division of the symphysis, and in the Cæsarean section, the preservation of the child is very uncertain, and the life or health of the mother in the greatest danger. Dr. Osborn consequently proposes, where the pelvis is very much distorted, the operation of embryotomy, in preference to either; and endeavours to support it by arguments, to prove that, in this situation, the child is either dead or insensible to pain; and by recurring to his former position, that we at least sacrifice a life less valuable, to preserve one which, in comparison, is infinitely more so. We shall not stop to consider the only argument which appears to us exceptionable, the insensibility of the child, because the reasoning is decisive without its assistance; but proceed to the principal part of this work, which endeavours to shew, that embryotomy is superior either to the Cæsarean section, or to the new operation of Monsr. Sigault.

The repeated failure of the Cæsarean section, in the modern attempts, must in a great measure decide our judgment of its propriety. The earlier experiments are, we own, suspicious; but they are related with so much confidence, that we were not surprised to see a professor in a neighbouring university, Dr. Hamilton, of Edinburgh, supporting his recommendation of the operation on their credit. We have had many proofs of his abilities and judgment; but it requires a little boldness to impeach the credit of medical records, in a public work. We mean to throw no imputation on Dr. Osborn; for we own that, in ancient medical authors, we find more room for suspicion, at least, than for belief; and that we are often incredulous, when we are obliged, apparently, to assent.

The new operation has been much commended: as Dr. Osborn was therefore convinced of its danger and inutility, it required no common attention to the several experiments, which have been made, to oppose the confidence with which it has been recommended. All the several attempts have, on this account, been particularly considered; and he finds that, in the best circumstances, the recovery has been slow; that the patient has been weakened by exfoliations, or more nearly endangered by lacerations and inflammations from the pressure. He thinks it has sometimes been wantonly employed, when nature could have effected the delivery without its assistance; and that it will not enlarge the pelvis, in a sufficient degree, when it really becomes necessary. Even Dr. Leake's supposition, that the aperture of the divided bones will receive the hind-head of the child, he thinks, may be injurious, as, in that case, the interposed parts must receive considerable

considerable pressure, and probably injury: And Dr. Hunter's argument, that it may make room for the crotchet, is, in his opinion, inadmissible.

On these accounts he contends for the preference of embryotomy; for while, from Sigault's operation, the space of about six or seven lines, at the utmost, can be obtained, though one inch and a half is sometimes wanted; by this, the head of the child can be brought within the size that is, in almost any instance, necessary. We own ourselves entirely of the same opinion, and think that Dr. Osborn's attempt deserves the highest commendation.—This work is written with accuracy, candour, and good sense, and will add considerably to his reputation. If we can perceive any fault, we think he has trusted too little to the efforts of nature, and limited her powers by stating, that the greatest compression which the head can with safety bear, will not reduce its transverse diameter to less than about two inches and three quarters. But this is a trifling blemish, and we rather point it out as a subject of his future consideration, than reprehend it as a real error.

Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. selected from the Correspondence-Book of the Society instituted at Bath for the Encouragement of Agriculture, &c. Vol. II. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Dilly.

A Society, instituted on liberal principles, for the encouragement of one of the most useful sciences, deserves both support and commendation; but while we contribute our praises, we ought not to conceal its defects. A laudable ambition to serve his country, and contribute to the assistance of its inhabitants, will frequently incite either the philosopher or agriculturist to communicate the result of his experiments; an eagerness for distinction will often induce those who are less qualified for the task, to attempt it; and the only compensation, for the crudeness of their remarks, will be an affected importance, frequent exaggeration, and we fear sometimes fiction. As these papers are *selected*, we do not frequently meet with exceptionable ones; but no society can be always aware of the arts of ingenuity, or distinguish between the probable and the true; between the ornaments of fancy and the dictates of experience.

This collection, like every other, will consequently be found to be of various merit; if it is not distinguished by any very splendid discovery, we find few observations that we can, with propriety, reprehend. There are many proofs of the attention of the various correspondents; and, where we have

have room for doubt, the determination must necessarily be left to future experience.

There are some observations on the culture of carrots, by Mr. Young, which deserve attention; others on manure, which will probably be advantageously followed. As the article on planting seems correct and useful, we shall insert it. The appearance of the country, in many situations, is much injured by the devastation which, from various causes, have been made among the trees.

On Planting barren Lands with Wood.—Among all the improvements which a lover of his country would naturally wish to see take place, there are none which seems to want, or to merit encouragement, more than that of planting barren soils and waste lands with wood. One principal cause of this improvement having made a slower progress than many others is, that the first expence is considerable, and the profits, although certain in the end, are remote; and therefore I have for several years wished to see your premiums increased on this article.

As I have made considerable plantations in my time, and always found the future profits, as well as the present pleasure attending it, to exceed my expectations, I do not offer my advice on an uncertain theory, but *know* what I take the liberty of recommending to you.

There are three kinds of land usually termed barren; and with respect to almost every purpose but that of planting, they are, and must remain so, unless an expence, greater than most people chuse to be at, be submitted to, in improving them.

The first kind is mere sand. This soil, unless there is clay or marle at a few feet depth under it, (as is the case in the West part of Norfolk, about Thetford and Brandon) will pay better by being planted with Scotch firs and larches than any thing else; especially, if in making the plantations, a little clay or marle be mixed with the sand in the holes where each tree is planted; and this may be done at a small expence.

These trees will grow here very well. I know several large plantations, where the soil has been so perfectly sandy, that there was not grass enough to keep one sheep on an acre, and yet after being planted twenty years, there have been two thousand trees on an acre, worth at the lowest estimate one shilling each as they stood. A few acres of such land thus planted would be a pretty fortune for the younger branches of a family.

The second kind is boggy or wet moors, which are sometimes so situated as not to be drained without too great an expence. Wherever this is the case, such soils may be planted to greater advantage, as Mr. Fletcher, in his letter on this subject, printed in your first volume, has justly remarked. Ash for poles or coping, will thrive here beyond expectation; and alders, with several species of the fallow tribe, will grow rapidly, and in twenty years after planting pay a profit of three pounds

pounds per acre per annum, for the whole time. The expence attending it is confined almost wholly to the first five or six years; for after that time little more is required than to keep up the fences, and the profit is certain.

‘ The third soil on which planting answers better than any thing else, is barren rocky hills, which cannot be ploughed on account of the stones lying level with the surface, or growing above it. In such places there are numerous little clefts or fissures in the rocks, filled with veins of earth to a considerable depth, which the roots of trees will follow and find sufficient nourishment in. Many instances of this may be found in the counties of Somerset, Gloucester, and Dorset, where the wisdom of our forefathers induced them to try the experiment. On the north slope of Mendip hills in particular, (a situation as unfavourable as most, on account of its being a bed of rocks exposed to the bleak north and east winds) we see beautiful woods of large extent hanging over the parishes of Compton-Martin, Ubley, Blagdon, Hutton, and Churchill. In these woods, although the timber is not large, the growth of the pollard trees and copse wood must every twelve years bring in considerable sums to the owners, although the land for any other purpose would not be worth one shilling an acre.

‘ In planting barren mountainous situations, full of stone, no particular directions can be given as to the number of trees per acre, for you must follow the veins of earth where they are deepest; but in general plant as thick as you can, for this will best prevent the bad effects of tempestuous winds, by the interior parts being sheltered from them.

‘ In these situations intermix Scotch firs, which will secure less hardy trees from the fury of the winds, especially if a double row of them form the boundary. As the surfaces of such places are mostly craggy and uneven, be careful to plant your trees in the little hollows, for two reasons; first, because there is most earth and moisture; and secondly, because in these cavities the plants will, while young, be most sheltered from the winds. Fear not to plant too thick, for as the plants increase in size and hardness, you may thin them at pleasure, and the wood will pay for the labour.

‘ Your young plants should be raised in a situation as similar as possible to that where you intend they should continue; for if they are transplanted out of a rich warm nursery, it would prove their destruction. As there is seldom sufficient depth of soil among the rocks to receive long tap-roots, the plants which naturally have them should be cut off when they are first taken from the seed beds and planted in the nursery. By treating them in this manner, although their vigour will be checked for the first year or two, until they have sent forth a number of lateral roots, they will recover their strength, and prove equally thrifty with others.

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‘These plantations may be made with beech, birch, oak, ash, sycamore, and black poplar; always observing to place the tenderest trees in the least exposed situations, where they are sheltered from north and east winds. In places where the soil is very thin, raise little hillocks about the young plants, which will greatly encourage their growth.

‘In such bleak situations, plant as late in the spring as you can with safety. April is a month in which it may be expected the most stormy weather is over, and all the kinds of trees I have mentioned may safely be replanted at that time. But your nursery should always be near the spot you intend to plant, or else the roots of your young trees will get dry, and their buds be rubbed off in carriage.

‘During the first three months after planting, they should frequently be examined, and the earth made fast about their roots, otherwise they will be loosened by the winds; but after that time they will have put forth new roots sufficient to hold them securely.

‘The upright English elm, and the wick elm, may also be properly introduced in these situations, for they are hardy trees, and, when once rooted, grow well on rocky soils. The timber of the latter is very valuable for naves of carriage wheels, boring for water-pipes.

‘If oaks, chesnuts, or beech, or indeed any other tree that sheds its leaves in winter, grow crooked, make incisions with the point of a knife from top to bottom in the hollow part. This will occasion the tree to increase in bulk more in those parts than in any other, and by this simple easy method, I have known many a crooked tree grow strait and handsome. R. E.’

There is a paper from the late Dr. Fothergill, respecting the rhubarb, in which he seems to object to the cultivation of this drug in England. The English root *may*, he thinks, be as good, but it may also differ, and subject practitioners ‘to the risque of disappointment, or the solicitude of attending numerous experiments.’ What can be raised cheaper and better, by other nations, who will exchange their products for those articles in which we can excel, should, he thinks, ‘from motives of just policy and humanity,’ be imported.

Another paper, from Dr. Pultney, on the different species of rhubarb, attracted our attention. The *rheum rhaponticum*, though the rhubarb of Dioscorides, and probably of the ancients, is certainly, as Dr. Pultney supposes, at present known *not* to be the true species. The *rheum palmatum* was at last believed, by Linnæus himself, to be that from which the officinal medicine is commonly procured, though he formerly gave the preference to the *undulatum*. Monf. Pallas, the latest observer, appears to consider it as indifferent, whether it be the root of the *rheum palmatum* or *undulatum*.

latum. Dr. Pultney says, that he seems to have determined, that the Russian rhubarb is of the former kind, and the Chinese of the latter. From the accounts of Mons. Pallas, which we have inspected, he seems to give the preference to the latter. They are probably so nearly similar, that the difference is trifling: these two species, we find, have produced a mongrel plant, which our author seems to expect will excel either. We have seen a hybrid, from the *rheum palmatum* & *compactum*, which had very active purgative virtues. Bergius, he observes, recommends taking them up in autumn; Dr. Pultney rather gives the preference to the spring, from the general analogy of the virtues of roots. Bergius thinks that they require to be eleven or twelve years old; Dr. Hope, that they are sufficiently good at the end of four or five years. The young roots, it is said, are more purgative, the older ones more astringent; and it is probably owing to this circumstance, that our rhubarb yields to the foreign in astringency, while it excels it in the other quality.

The fifty-sixth article, by Mr. Rack, on the origin and progress of agriculture in different ages and nations, deserves attention. We shall select that part which relates to the early state of husbandry in this country. It is curious, and not unentertaining.

‘ We are very much in the dark with respect to the state and progress of agriculture in Great Britain previous to the fourteenth century. That it was pretty generally practised, especially in the eastern, south, and midland parts of England, is certain: but of the mode, and the success, we are left almost totally ignorant. In the latter end of the fifteenth century, however, it seems to have been cultivated as a science, and received very great improvement.

‘ At this time our countryman, Fitzherbert, Judge of the Common Pleas, shone forth with distinguished eminence in the practical parts of husbandry. He appears to have been the first Englishman who studied the nature of soils, and the laws of vegetation, with philosophical attention. On these he formed a theory confirmed by experiments, and rendered the study pleasing as well as profitable, by realizing the principles of the ancients, to the honour and advantage of his country. Accordingly, he published two treatises on this subject; the first, intitled “The Book of Husbandry,” appeared 1534; and the second, called “The Book of Surveying and Improvements,” in 1539.

‘ These books, being written at a time when philosophy and science were but just emerging from that gloom in which they had long been buried, were doubtless replete with many errors; but they contained the rudiments of true knowledge, and
revived

revived the study and love of an art, the advantages of which were obvious to men of the least reflection. We therefore find that Fitzherbert's books on agriculture soon raised a spirit of emulation in his countrymen, and many treatises of the same kind successively appeared, which time has however deprived us of, or at least they are become so very scarce as only to be found in the libraries of the curious.—

During the reign of Charles the first, our fatal domestic dissensions and wars reversed the true order of things, changing our ploughs and pruning hooks into martial weapons. But in the general revolution of affairs, which took place on the death of that unfortunate monarch, artful and avaritious men crept into the confiscated estates of such of the nobility and gentry as had steadily adhered to the royal cause; and as many of these new incroachers had risen from the plough, they returned with pleasure to their old occupations, being chiefly animated with the love of gain. About this time, Tusser, Platt, Plattes, Hartlib, Blythe, and some others, seized this favourable opportunity of encouraging the disposition of the common people, by writings, which have been equalled by few in later times.

This revival of the art of husbandry received considerable encouragement from Cromwell himself.

Sir Hugh Platt was one of the most ingenious husbandmen of the age in which he lived; yet so great was his modesty, that all his works, except his *Paradise of Flora*, seem to be posthumous. He held a correspondence with most of the lovers and patrons of agriculture and gardening in England; and such was the justice and modesty of his temper, that he always named the author of every discovery communicated to him. Perhaps no man in any age discovered, or at least brought into use, so many new kinds of manure. This will be evident to those who read his account of the compost and covered dung-hills, and his judicious observations on the fertilizing qualities lodged in salt, street-dirt, and the fullage of streets in great cities, clay, fuller's earth, moorish earths, dung-hills made in layers, fern, hair, calcination of all vegetables, malt-dust, willow-tree earth, soap's ashes, urine, marle, and broken pilchards.

Gabriel Plattes may be said to have been an original genius in husbandry. He began his observations at an earlier period, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and continued them down to the commonwealth. But notwithstanding the great merit of this writer, and the essential service he had rendered his country by his writings, the public ungratefully suffered him to starve and perish in the streets of London; nor had he a shirt on his back when he died.

Samuel Hartlib, a celebrated writer on agriculture in the last century, was highly esteemed and beloved by Milton, and other great men of his time. In the preface to the work entitled

titled his Legacy[†], he laments that no public director of husbandry was established in England by authority; and that we had not adopted the Flemish method of letting farms upon improvement.

This remark of Hartlib's procured him a pension of 100l. a-year from Cromwell; and the writer afterwards, the better to fulfil the intention of his benefactor, procured Dr. Beatti's excellent annotation on the Legacy, with other valuable papers from his numerous correspondents.

Archæologia: or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Vol. IV. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. 4to. 11. 2s. in Boards. Brown.

THIS volume commences with a farther account of some remains of Roman and other antiquities, in or near the county of Brecknock, in South Wales. By John Strange, esq.

In Mr. Strange's former paper on this subject[†], he mentioned the discovery of a Roman station at Cwm, in the parish of Llanier, on the borders of Brecknockshire. This station he then thought much more likely to be the Bullæum of Ptolemy, than either Buahlt or Kaereu, where he found no signs of the Romans; but he is still more inclined to fix Magnis of Antoninus at Cwm; and in this opinion he is confirmed, by the circumstances respecting its situation and distance from other places. Among the conjectures formerly suggested by Mr. Strange, one was, that a Roman road had led from Gaer, near Brecknock, along the valley westward, and so over Treastle-hill into the vale of Llanidover, in Carmarthenshire. In support of this conjecture, he informs the Antiquarian Society, that since the communication of his former account, a stone with a Roman inscription engraved upon it has been dug up on the top of Treastle-hill. This stone was found about two feet under ground. It is a coarse sort of lime-stone, flat on the side where the most imperfect part of the inscription is engraved, and round on the other, tapering towards the edges, and the thickest part of it hardly measuring three inches. In respect of the inscription, as the characters are not very good, and only a part of them intelli-

* 'It must here be observed, that the famous work attributed to Hartlib, and called his Legacy, was not written by him. It was only drawn up at his request by one R. Childs, and after undergoing Hartlib's correction and revival, was published by him. It consists of a general answer to this question: "What are the actual defects and omissions, and what the possible improvements, in English husbandry?"

† See vol. xliv. p. 88.

gible,

gible, we must of necessity refer our readers to the engraving. Mr. Strange also gives an account of some other remains of antiquities, less remote, which occurred to him on his journey in those parts.

Art. II. On the term *Lavant*. By the Hon. Daines Barrington.—Camden, in treating of the city of Chichester, observes, that ‘it is washed on every side but the north by the little river *Lavant*;

 and of the same subject Philemon Holland adds, ‘the course of which stream is very unaccountable, being sometimes quite dry, but at other times (and that often in the midst of summer) so full as to run with some violence.’ Mr. Barrington observes, in explanation of the term *Lavant*, that, in various parts of England, it is applied to all brooks, or sea-sands, which are dry at some seasons.

Art. III. An Enquiry into the Nature and Cause of King John’s Death. By the Rev. Mr. Pegge.—Mr. Pegge endeavours to prove, by historical testimony, and a variety of arguments, that the death of king John was not effected by poison, as some writers have represented; and we think, that, as far as a negative question can be determined, he has succeeded in his attempt.

Art. IV. Illustration of a gold enamelled Ring, supposed to have been the property of Alhstan, bishop of Sherburne; with some account of the state and condition of the Saxon Jewelry in the more early ages. By the Rev. Mr. Pegge.—This ring was found by a labourer on the surface of the ground, on a common, at a place called *Llys Faen*, in the north-east corner of Carnarvonshire. It is gold, enamelled, of good workmanship, and in fine preservation. It weighs about an ounce, and has upon it a Saxon inscription.

Art. V. An Account of Human Bones filled with Lead. By Mr. Worth, late of Difs.—These bones were found in making a grave in the chancel of Badwell Ash, near Walsingham Willows, in Suffolk, in the year 1774. On one of them, which is the lower half of an adult thigh-bone, the following observations have been made by the late Dr. Hunter.

‘The metal contained appears to be genuine unmixed lead; that is, not reduced to an amalgam, or mixed with any thing that would make it melt with a small degree of heat: and it appears to be but little corroded on its surface.

‘Little more of the bone itself remains than the spongy internal part which had contained the marrow; the solid, cortical or external part of the bone being every where removed, except at the lower part forwards, and a little of the surface which had made the joint, and especially at the cavity between the two condyles.

'The lead is all granulated, corresponding to the medullary cavities and pores; and the interstices contain the bony remains, which are of the common brown colour of church-yard bones, and do not appear burnt.

'At the enlarged extremity of the bone the cells are more partially filled; some containing lead, some being quite empty, and many of them containing a hard, brittle, whitish stony substance, which effervesces with a spirit of sea salt.

'At the lower extremity, the lead had run upon the surface of the bone, in some parts forming thin plates, and in one place making an irregular mass, closely covered with earth and gravel.

'From the appearance, the natural supposition would be that the lead had been poured into the medullary canal after the marrow had been consumed by time.'

Mr. Worth supposes the bones to have been thus impregnated with lead, either from lightning, or some subterraneous vapour taking fire in the vault. But the most probable opinion is that suggested by Dr. Hunter. Perhaps the filling of bones with lead was a method sometimes used to preserve relics. Bones so filled, however, have been met with in other places; and there are some, in the same state, in the library of St. John's college, in Cambridge.

Art. VI. erroneously marked VII. Remarks on the Antiquity of the different Modes of Brick and Stone Buildings in England. By Mr. James Essex, of Cambridge.—From the accurate view exhibited by Mr. Essex, of the various kinds of masonry used in England in different periods, it appears very difficult to determine the age of a building by the materials or the methods of using them, when no other circumstance concurs to assist in the determination; and this is observed to be particularly the case in respect of those buildings which were erected with new materials, either before or soon after the Conquest. The age of ancient buildings, however, Mr. Essex observes, may sometimes be nearly ascertained by the fragments of pillars, voussoirs of arches, and other members of Gothic architecture, worked into the walls of ancient edifices. But to judge by this circumstance, a person must be well acquainted with the various modes of Gothic architecture which prevailed in different ages.

Art. VIII. Observations on Kit's Cotty House, in Kent. By the Rev. Mr. Pegge.—With regard to the occasion on which this monument was erected, antiquaries have formed different conjectures; but they are agreed in opinion that it has been intended as sepulchral.

Art. IX. Account of a singular Discovery of a Quantity of Birds Bones, buried in Christ Church Priory, Hampshire.

By

By Gustavus Brander, Esq.—The cavity in which these bones were deposited was under the pavement of what is supposed to have been the prior's private oratory. They amounted to the quantity of at least half a bushel, consisting of the bones of herons, bitterns, cocks and hens, many of which have long spurs, and mostly well preserved. Mr. Brander observes, that the foundation of the ancient priory in which these bones were discovered, seems to be of a very early date. According to Tanner, this place, in the time of Edward the Confessor, was the residence of a dean and twenty-four secular canons, afterwards changed into regulars, of the order of St. Augustine. But Mr. Brander, from the circumstance of the above mentioned bones, thinks it not improbable that the building was of a more remote origin, and had once been a Pagan temple.

Art. X. An Account of the Great Seal of Ranulph Earl of Chester, and of two Inscriptions found in the Ruins of St. Edmund Bury Abbey. By Edward King, Esq.—Ranulph earl of Chester was one of the most powerful barons in the time of king Stephen. This, which there is strong presumption to think was his great seal, is made of lead, and has a sort of handle, with a hole, by which it might be fastened to a string, or ribband. It is ill designed, but tolerably well cut, according to the unimproved state of the arts at that time.

Of the two inscriptions mentioned in the title of this article, the former is remarkable on account of the shape of the letters, and the substance on which they are executed. They are raised in a very bold relief, and instead of being cut, or carved, have been evidently cast, with the whole mass, in a kind of clay, which had afterwards been burnt in the manner of tiles. The other fragment, which is larger, is of a coarse, soft stone, and supposed to be a part of the tomb of the poet Lydgate, whose name is legible upon it.

Art. XI. Observations on a Coin of Robert Earl of Gloucester. By Mr. Colebrook.

Art. XII. On the Origin of the Word Romance. By the Rev. Mr. Drake.—The ingenious Mr. Warton, in his History of English Poetry, has considered the word Romance as of French extraction; but Mr. Drake endeavours to prove that it is of Spanish original.

Art. XIII. Some Observations on Lincoln Cathedral. By Mr. James Essex.

Art. XIV. Account of the Discoveries at Pompeii, communicated by Sir William Hamilton.—One of the parts discovered is a colonade, encompassing a square court, not yet

cleared from the rubbish of pumice stones and ashes, by which the city was overwhelmed. The columns are of coarse stone, coated with plaster or stucco, and coloured. On many of the columns the soldiers have idly scratched their names, some in Greek, and some in Latin. In the rooms in which the soldiers had been quartered, were found the skeletons of some of them, besides several helmets, and pieces of armour for the arms, thighs, and legs, but none for the breast. These pieces of armour are mostly ornamented with dolphins and tridents, in relievo, and some are encrusted with such ornaments in silver; whence it is conjectured that they had been destined for sea service.

The helmets, says sir William Hamilton, are singularly formed, not unlike the hats used by the firemen in London. Some are very richly ornamented, and one particularly beautiful and interesting, with the principal events of the taking of Troy admirably executed in relievo. Some have vizors, like the helmets of the lower ages, with gratings or round holes to see through. From their size and weight, it has been disputed, whether they had been really worn, or were only intended as ornaments for trophies; but, as I was present at the discovery of some of them, and saw distinctly part of the linings which were then adhering to them, and are now fallen out, I have no doubt as to their having been worn. A curious trumpet of brass, with six ivory flutes attached to the outside of it, and all communicating to one mouth-piece, was found in one of these rooms. The flutes are without holes for the fingers. A chain of bronze hang to it, probably that the trumpeter might sling it over his shoulder. It might be a very proper military instrument, and produce a spirited *clangor tubarum*, but not much variety or harmony.

The plan of most of the houses at Pompeii is a square court, with a fountain in the middle, and small rooms round, communicating with the court. Sir William Hamilton observes, that, by the construction and distribution of the houses, it seems the inhabitants of Pompeii were fond of privacy. They had few windows towards the street, except when, from the nature of the plan, they could not avoid it; but, even in that case, the windows were placed too high for any person in the streets to overlook them. The rooms are in general small, from ten to twelve feet, and from fourteen to eighteen feet; few communications between room and room; almost all without windows, except the apartments situated to the garden, which are thought to have been allotted to the women. No timber was used in finishing their apartments, except in doors and windows. The floors were generally laid in Mosaic work. One general taste prevailed of painting the sides
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and ceilings of the rooms. Small figures, and medallions of low relief, were sometimes introduced. Their great variety consisted in the colours, and in the choice and delicacy of the ornaments, in which they displayed great taste. Their houses were some two, others three stories high. Among the discoveries made at Pompeii, is a temple dedicated to Isis. These curious remains of antiquity are illustrated by a number of engravings.

Art. XV. Some Account of a curious Seal Ring, belonging to Sir Richard Worsley, of Appledore-combe, in the Isle of Wight, Bart. By the Rev. Dr. Milles, Dean of Exeter.—This curious ring, set in gold, and of exquisite workmanship, is said to have been in the family of Worsley ever since the time of Henry VIII. whose property it is supposed to have originally been.

Art. XVI. Conjectures on Sir Richard Worsley's Seal. By John Charles Brooke, Esq. of the Herald's College.

Art. XVII. A Dissertation on a most valuable Gold Coin of Edmund Crouchback, Son of Henry III. By the Rev. Mr. Pegge.

Art. XVIII. An Account of the Events produced in England by the Grant of the Kingdom of Sicily to Prince Edmund, second Son of King Henry III. With some Remarks upon the Seal of that Prince.

Art. XIX. Of the Wisdom of the Ancient Egyptians; a Discourse concerning their Arts, their Sciences, and their Learning; their Laws, their Government, and their Religion. With occasional Reflections upon the State of Learning among the Jews, and some other Nations.—This treatise, which occupies almost a hundred pages, was written by the late Dr. John Woodward, and having come into the possession of Mr. Lort, the latter presented it to the Society of Antiquaries.

In this treatise, which discovers a great extent of knowledge, Dr. Woodward produces many strong arguments, calculated to refute the general opinion that the ancient Egyptians were remarkable for the cultivation of the arts and sciences. The author likewise opposes, by many just and forcible observations, the idea which a few writers have maintained, that some parts of the Mosaic institution were taken from the polity of the Egyptians.

Art. XX. The Ceremonial of making the King's Bed. Communicated by Mr. Brooke, of the Herald's Office.—Among the injunctions relative to this important operation, it is ordered, that a yeoman with a dagger shall search the straw of the king's bed, 'that there be none untreuth therein.' It is further enjoined, that no person shall set any dish upon

the bed, * for fere of hurtyng of the kynges ryche counter-
poynt that lyeth therupon.

Art. XXI. Observations on the Apamean Medal. By the
Hon. Daines Barrington. — This celebrated medal has already
been the subject of much dispute among antiquaries. Mr.
Barrington partly admits the observations made by Mr. Bryant
respecting this medal, but cannot agree with him in opinion
that it alludes to the Mosaical account of the deluge. The
latter of these gentlemen has thus described the emblem of
the medal.

“ Upon the reverse is delineated a kind of square machine
floating upon the water. Through an opening in it are seen
two persons, a man and a woman, as low as the breast, and
upon the head of the woman is a vail. Over this ark is a kind
of triangular pediment, on which there sits a dove, and below
it another, which seems to flutter its wings, and holds in its
mouth a small branch of a tree. Before the machine is a man
following a woman, who, by their attitudes, seem to have just
quitted it, and to have gotten upon dry land. Upon the ark
itself, underneath the persons there inclosed, is to be read, in
distinct characters, NOE.”

On this description Mr. Barrington makes the following re-
marks.

‘ The square machine is represented as so small, that the
man and woman have but just room to stand in it; and how can
this be applicable to Noah’s ark, consisting of three stories, and
which was to contain so many animals with the provision ne-
cessary to subsist them for more than twelve months? I allow
indeed that mint-masters do not pique themselves upon accuracy
in such particulars; but that there would not have been such a
gross misrepresentation in the apparent size of the ark, I can
appeal to the engraving of the Argo, prefixed to Mr. Bryant’s
Dissertation, which is considerably larger than the supposed ark
of Noah.

‘ The roof of this ark is open, and the very top cannot much
exceed six feet, by comparing it with the height of the two per-
sons inclosed. How likewise does the removal of the roof agree
with the Mosaical account of the ark’s having but one window?
and Mr. Bryant himself supposes the patriarchal family to have
used torch-light whilst the ark floated.

‘ With regard to the two figures also conceived to be Noah
and his wife, it must be recollected that not only the patriarch
and his wife, but his three sons, with their wives, are expressly
ordered both to go into, and remove from the ark; nor is there
any one animal following them.

‘ As for Noah’s wife, she bears so inconsiderable a part in
the Mosaical history, that we do not know even what was her
name; but if she was really of importance, there is a pannel
left

left for *yum*, or *nai yum*, which it was equally proper to inscribe, as NQE under the patriarch.

‘ This man and woman when they have left the ark are raising up their right hands; but to what part of the Mosaic history does this relate? In Mr. Crofts’, Dr. Hunter’s, and the Pembroke medal, the man is represented as rather young, and with a sort of Phrygian cap; whereas in Mr. Bryant’s engraving he hath a venerable beard, and no covering on his head. The Philip likewise on the other side of the medallion is very different from Mr. Bryant’s.

‘ The next circumstance is a bird perched upon the top of the ark, which cannot be either Noah’s dove or raven; for the latter does not return at all; and the former, when it comes back, is taken immediately into the ark by the patriarch.

‘ As for the bird on the wing with a branch of a tree in its claws, this also is not agreeable to the book of Genesis, which expressly states that it was a *leaf*, and not a *branch* of an olive-tree, which is much more probable, as it is more easily carried, by a bird of so small a size as a pigeon. This leaf is also said to be placed in the pigeon’s mouth, and not in its claws.

Mr. Barrington, having endeavoured to show that the Apamean medal is not properly applicable to the Mosaic account of the deluge, proceeds to support the opinion suggested by Vaillant, that it relates to Deucalion’s flood, as described by Ovid and Plutarch. The doctrine he maintains is, in substance, that the deluge was not general; but that there had been a great flood at Apamea, whilst Alexander was high-priest; and that the event was commemorated by a medallion.

Art. XXII. Observations on the Apamean Medal. By the Rev. Dr. Milles, Dean of Exeter.—In these observations, Dr. Milles takes no part in the controversy; though he seems not to be so much satisfied with Bryant’s remarks on this, as on other subjects. The principal object of his attention is to describe the different state of the medals under consideration, to distinguish the spurious from the genuine coins, and rather to show what consequences cannot be drawn, than to establish any positive determination on so conjectural a subject.

Art. XXIII. Remarks upon Mr. Bryant’s Vindication of the Apamean Medal. By the Abbé Barthelemy and Mr. Charles Combe.—These remarks tend to corroborate the opinion, that the letters NQE, which have been deemed so essential in the explanation of this medal, are not genuine, but have been fabricated for the purpose of imposition.

Art. XXIV. Account of Coins, &c. found in digging up the Foundations of some old Houses near the Church of St. Mary Hill, London, 1774. By the Rev. Dr. Griffith.—Between three and four hundred of these coins being carefully examined,

examined, they were found to consist entirely of the pennies of Edward the Confessor, Harold II. and William the Conqueror.

Art. XXV. Observations on Ancient Castles. By Edward King, Esq.

Art. XXVI. Mr. Pegg's Remarks on the Bones of Fowls found in Christchurch-Twynham, Hampshire.

These are the several articles contained in the present volume of the *Archæologia*, which is, as usual, illustrated with a great number of engravings relative to the various subjects.

Russia: or, a Compleat Historical Account of all the Nations which compose that Empire. Vol. IV. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Nichols.

THIS volume begins with the Mongol nations, which are supposed to be of very ancient origin. It is thought that they formerly perambulated the deserts on both sides of the mountains that separate Dauria from the present Chinese Mongolia, and the southern parts of the Sayane hills. At least the names of the mountains and rivers of these parts, as well as of those about Tibet, are of Mongol derivation. The Mongols being driven out of China in the year of our Lord 1368, they, in conjunction with the Tartar hords, after subduing their western neighbours, spread into Russia, and other European countries, and formed in them new colonies. In process of time, the princes of the two nations separating, their empire was disjoined in the sixteenth century, since which the Mongols and Tartars have continued distinct tribes. Though the close confederacy which had long subsisted between the two nations produced a similarity in their manners and speech, their governments are considerably different from each other; the Tartarian being democratical, while that of the Mongols inclines to the monarchical form.

The Mongols at present divide themselves into three collateral branches, dependent on each other; the Mongols properly so called, the Oirats, and the Burats. The Oirats are commonly called Kalmucs. According to their own history, their first residence was in the Mongol empire, between the Kokonoor or Blue Sea, and Tibet. In after-times some branches of them came westward to the banks of the Irtysh, the Urol, and at length even upon the Volga. On the dismemberment of the Mongol-Tartarian monarchy, they divided themselves into the following hords and headships, viz. the Khoschoots, the Soongarians, the Derbets, and the Torgots.

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The first of these, called also the Warriors, on account of their bravery, comprehends fifty thousand bows, for fighting men. This nation dwells near Tibet, and acknowledges the sovereignty of China.

The Soongarians, in very remote times, made one hord with the Derbets; but the disputes of two brothers occasioned their separation. Their first known residence was about the Balkaschnoor, and the upper part of the Irtisch. They can raise fifty thousand men. From a few years before the close of the last century, to near the middle of the present, the Soongarians were the terror of all the Mongol hords, and were formidable even to China. The eastern towns of Bucharia, and the Burats, or great Kirguinan hord, were tributary to them. They took Budala, the capital city of the Dalai Lama, and ravaged Siberia; where they obliged several nations, in subjection to Russia, to pay them tribute. The Soongarians, however, are now so far declined, that they have been obliged to seek protection from other hords.

The residence of the Derbets has generally been about the source of the rivers Ischim and Tobol. In 1673, they surrendered themselves, to the amount of five thousand tents or families, to the khan of the Torgots, on the river Urol, a people who pay homage to Russia. In 1723, the Derbetan princes forsook the territory of the Torgots, and migrated to the parts about the Don; at which time they were computed to amount to fourteen thousand families. But when it appeared to the Russian government that the Derbetan prince, Lava Dondue, was putting himself under the protection of the Krim, the Derbets were obliged to repass the Volga to the Torgots again.

The Turgots appear not to have formed themselves into a hord so early as the nations above mentioned, and take their rise from a small beginning. At present they inhabit about the Yemba, and perambulate as far as the Urol. So long ago as 1662 they were fifty thousand strong. They are called the Volgiac as commonly as the Torgotan hord.

The deserts which the Kalmucs inhabit, with their hords, lie between the Don and the Volga, and on the river Urol, from Irgis to the Caspian sea. They consist of a strong loam, are quite arid, destitute of wood, abound in salt, contain many fresh-water lakes and brooks, and numbers of lakes that are perfectly salt. They produce wholesome plants and good herbage; so that the cattle are in general vigorous, and speedily become fat. The remaining Kalmucs consist of upwards of twenty thousand tents, or families. The establishment of the hord is entirely military. Their weapons are the bow, in the
Tungurian

Tungurian form. The quiver is a neat flat earthen bag. They carry also lances and sabres, and for some time past fire-arms, which they procure from Buchariah; but being seldom furnished with locks, they are obliged to discharge them with a match. Those who are rich among them have coats of mail of wire rings. A complete equipage costs from forty to fifty horses.

The army is composed of regiments of unequal numbers, and every regiment is divided into hundreds. Each regiment has its colours, painted with the idol-gods of war, dragons, serpents, tygers, lions, &c.

The persons of the Kalmucks are thus described by the author of the present history.

The Kalmucs are of a middling stature, seldom large; for the most part, raw boned and stout. Their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may easily be known from that of any other man. The eyes too are smaller, and the corners of them flatter, than among the Europeans. They have thick lips, a small nose, a short chin; and their beard is scanty, and appears late. Their teeth are even and white. Their complexion is a reddish brown; generally indeed from the wind and sun, and their neglect of cleanliness, it is of a yellowish brown. Their ears are very large and prominent; their hair is black. Their knees always stand outwards, like a bow: this proceeds from their customary manner of sitting on their ancles, and their being almost constantly on horseback. Their senses of feeling and taste are dull; but those of smell, sight, and hearing, are wonderfully quick. The women are of the same shape and make with the men, only the skin of their face is very clear, and of a wholesome white and red.

The cloathing of the men is entirely oriental, and their heads dressed exactly in the Chinese fashion. They wind linen about their feet, and draw over it their buskins, which are of black, or yellow, or some other coloured leather. Their breeches are large; their under-garment is of light stuff, with narrow sleeves, and a girdle, to which is suspended the sabre, a knife, and the implements for making tobacco. Their upper garment is of cloth, with wide sleeves. They let the beard grow, but shave the head all to one lock, which they plait into three strings. The covering for the head is a flat yellow bonnet, with a small round brim, set off with a tassel. The dress of the women is precisely the same with that of the men; only, instead of the upper garment, they wear a vest without sleeves. They let their hair grow, and plait it like the Tartar girls in several tresses, which hang about their necks; but when married, they divide it into only two. Their ears, which are smaller than those of the men, are adorned

adorned with pendants, and their fingers with rings. Great finery is bestowed on their upper vest.

The principal food of the Kalmucs is animals, both tame and wild, except dogs, and beasts and birds of prey; and next to animal food, they prefer cheese, butter, grease, and blood. According to the doctrine of the metempsychosis, they ought not to slay any healthy beast; but they do not observe this very strictly, especially with regard to sheep. Even the first people among them feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age; and though the flesh stinks ever so much, they eat it without any disgust.

Their ordinary drinks are sour milk prepared after the Tartarian manner, butter-milk, milk spirits or koumish, and broths; but for the most part only water. They are also much addicted to tea, which they make either of the Chinese teas, or by an infusion of their own plants, with salt and milk. Of late they are become immoderate lovers of mead and brandy. Both sexes smoke tobacco at an enormous rate.

The editor of the work, besides giving a particular account of the manners and customs of the Kalmucs, has presented us with several specimens of their poetry, of part of which the following is a translation.

Ah thou, mine unparalleled darling!
How elegant is thy quiver of arrows, O thou, my darling!
The only food of my soul art thou, my darling!
Without anger, without falsehood, and full of mildness art thou, my darling!
Without pride, without any ridiculous restraint, art thou, my darling!
Thou, whose heart with mine is but one kernel!
Who has any thing to reproach thee with?
Any one that does it must do it from jealousy.
Ah let them say what they will,
The reproach will lie upon their own taste.
Let the glorious sun and moon dart their light from the heavens,
And let all men upon earth see thee and me, both of us alone;
And even then would we never remove from one another,
But enjoy the deliciousness of life together.

After the specimens of the Kalmuc poetry, follows the Legend of Ghesur Khan, which occupies no less than fifty pages; but for the entertainment arising from this story, if, indeed, it afford any such, we must refer our readers to the work; as we shall likewise for the ample narrative contained in the Kalmuc Chronicle.

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The subjects which next occur in the history are a description of Tzaritzin, and its confines; the colony of Sarepta; the Caspian sea; towns and fortresses between Tzaritzin and Astrachan; the history of Astrachan; the Volga, and the Armenians. Concerning the latter of these we shall lay before our readers the following short extract, upon the authority of the editor.

The Armenians, in the time of Tournefort, must have been quite different people from those of the present times, or the polite Frenchman was the dupe of his gallantry in the description he gives. According to the observations of M. Gmelin, which a long residence and commerce among them enabled him to make, they are almost all knaves, acting intirely as circumstances require, either with the most assuming pride, or the most abject meanness; but always with a view to interest. An Armenian (according to him) is capable of selling his father and his brother, if he thinks it to his advantage. He does not hesitate a moment about taking a false oath, if he can escape a merited punishment, or save a portion of his money by perjury. He will come and throw himself at your feet, if he has need of your assistance; nay, he will offer you his house, and all he is worth; but the instant he is out of the scrape, he not only forgets his deliverer, but will do him every mischief that lies in his power. The Armenians have even a gloomy and secret antipathy for each other, the source of continual disagreement, and constantly cherish in their hearts the poison of hatred.

The editor of this work has, in our opinion, stretched it to an extent that far surpasses the limits to which the subject had any just claim; but we must acknowledge at the same time, that he has amassed a large stock of information; though by what authorities it is supported, we are not explicitly told.—The present volume is ornamented with several plates, and a map of the new discoveries in the northern sea.

The Works of the Right Rev. Thomas Newton, D. D. late Lord Bishop of Bristol, and Dean of St. Paul's, London. With some Account of his Life, and Anecdotes of several of his Friends. Written by himself. In three Volumes. 4to. 3l. 15s. in Boards. Rivington.

WHEN we consider the various accidents and disasters to which literary productions are usually exposed, after the decease of their respective authors, the depredations of rats and trunk-makers, the ignorance or the negligence of executors, and the carelessness or the mistakes of editors, we cannot

cannot but think it a wise precaution in every voluminous writer (provided his finances, or the faith of his bookseller, will permit) to print a complete edition of his works, adorned with his effigy, and accompanied with an account of his own life and writings.

By this expedient he will be able to communicate them to the public in the most advantageous form; he will prevent his genuine performances from being disgraced by the addition of spurious publications; he will obviate any false or unfavourable accounts, which may be given of his parentage, or his conduct in particular cases; he will save the editors of biographical dictionaries, in future times, the inconceivable trouble and expence of collecting the memoirs of his life from tradition, from a register, from an epitaph, and from other imperfect sources of information; and, lastly, he will have the satisfaction to see his own monument erected, before he leaves the world.

The learned author of these volumes has taken this method to secure his works against all disasters, and has written the story of his own life. In the general opinion, this may have an appearance of vanity; but the same thing has been done by many grave and respectable writers; and, for the reasons we have assigned, is a prudent scheme.

As the literary world has been long acquainted with his lordship's writings, and the volumes now before us have been some time published, we shall only extract some of the most memorable facts and dates from his memoirs, and specify the principal articles, which compose this collection.

Thomas Newton was born at Litchfield, Dec. 21, 1703. His father was a considerable brandy and cyder merchant. He received the first part of his education in the free school of Litchfield, under Mr. Hunter. In 1717 he was sent to Westminster school; and six years afterwards, to Trinity college, Cambridge. In 1744, by the interest of Lord Bath, he was presented to the rectory of St. Mary le Bow, in Cheapside, and the year after took the degree of D. D. In 1747 he was chosen lecturer of St. George's, Hanover-square, and married the eldest daughter of Dr. Trebeck. In 1749 he published his edition of Milton's *Paradise Lost*, and about three years afterwards, *Paradise Regained*, and the other poems of Milton. In 1754 he had the misfortune to lose his wife. The same year he published the first volume of his *Dissertations on the Prophecies*. In 1757 he was made prebendary of Westminster, sub-almoner, and precentor of York. About the beginning of the next year he published his second and third volumes of *Dissertations*. In 1761 he married his second wife,

Mrs.

Mrs. Hand, relict of the Rev. Mr. Hand, and a daughter of Lord Lisburne. In September the same year he was appointed bishop of Bristol, and residentiary of St. Paul's. And in 1768 he was promoted to the deanry of St. Paul's, on which he resigned his living in the city.

As he was disabled by ill health from performing his duty in the pulpit, and even from attending the service of the church, he employed several years in revising, correcting, and preparing his works for the press. One of the last things of his writing was the account of his own life; and this he continued till within a very few days before his death, which happened at the Deanery, Feb. 14, 1782, in the 79th year of his age. He was buried, by his own desire, in a vault, under the south aisle of St. Paul's.

In this narrative the bishop has introduced a variety of anecdotes, relative to his friends and contemporaries, viz. bishops Smalridge, Atterbury, Berkeley, Hoadly, Green, Pearce, Warburton, Secker, Dr. Lockyer, Dr. Bentley, lord Tyrconnel, lord Bath, lord Chesterfield, the duke of Newcastle, lord Chatham, lord Mansfield, sir Thomas Clarke, Mr. Andrew Stone, and some others.

On several occasions his lordship reminds us of the venerable old Nestor, and takes notice of incidents, which he would have passed over in silence, if he had not been writing on a favourite topic; such as the compliments which were paid him at court, and the voluntary zeal of men in power to load him with preferments. In the same manner, if we rightly recollect, the good bishop Pearce was persecuted and oppressed by the gracious offers of royal favour, and the obliging importunities of his friends, entreating him to accept of the mitre. Happy days! when palaces and cathedrals opened their gates to the learned, and men of merit were compelled to come in!

In his account of the year 1780, the bishop severely reprobates the principles and practices of the Protestant associators, and the leaders of opposition.

In the year 1781 he employed some of his leisure hours in reading Mr. Gibbon's History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, Dr. Johnson's Lives of the Poets, Dean Milles's edition of Rowley's Poems, and Mr. Bryant's Remarks on the same.

Mr. Gibbon, he tells us, 'by no means answered his expectation: for he found his history rather a prolix and tedious performance, his matter uninteresting, and his style affected, his testimonies not to be depended upon, and his frequent scoffs at religion offensive to every sober mind.' Dr. Johnson's Lives, he

he says, 'afforded more amusement, but candour was much hurt and offended at the malevolence that predominates in every part. Some passages, it must be allowed, are judicious and well written, but make not sufficient compensation for so much spleen and ill humour. He was, therefore, surprised and concerned for his townsman; for he respected him not only for his genius and learning, but valued him for the more amiable part of his character, his humanity and charity, his morality and religion.'—The bishop perhaps would have read these performances with more complacency, if they had been published, and fallen into his hands, in 1761, and not at a time when ill health had embittered all his enjoyments.

By what he could learn and collect at Bristol, he was of opinion, that it was utterly impossible for Chatterton to be the author of the poems ascribed to Rowley; and he was pleased to have his judgment confirmed by the concurrence of two such able writers as Dean Milles and Mr. Bryant.—His lordship probably had not sufficiently considered the wonderful productions of many early geniuses, or the pieces which were confessedly written by Chatterton himself.

Besides the Author's Life, the first volume contains,

I. A Speech designed for the House of Lords, on the second reading of the Dissenters Bill, 1772.

II. The Sentiments of a moderate Man concerning Toleration, 1779.

III. A Letter to the new Parliament, with Hints of some Regulations, which the Nation hopes and expects from them, 1780.

IV. Dissertations on the Prophecies.

In these Dissertations the bishop has displayed great learning and judgment, has discovered an extensive knowledge of ancient and modern history, and thrown light upon many obscure passages of scripture. The most entertaining part of his work are those, in which he treats of the prophecies relating to Nineveh, Babylon, Tyre, Egypt, and Jerusalem; the least interesting or satisfactory are those dissertations, in which he endeavours to unfold the mysteries of the Revelation. In this undertaking he has succeeded better, perhaps, than any of his predecessors: but the book itself is so obscure, so much involved in figures and allegories, that the best explanations of it are mere conjectures. Accordingly, in the numerous list of commentators, who have attempted to expound the visions of the apocalyptic divine, there are scarcely two who concur in the same opinion; and we have

seen many of them grossly mistaken in their most positive calculations †.

The second volume consists of *Dissertations on the Writings of Moses, the Creation and the Fall, the Antidiluvian World, the Deluge, the Confusion of Languages, the History of the Patriarchs, and the Transactions of David and Nathan:—On religious Melancholy, Self-Love, God's Omnipresence, the Divine Goodness, the Pleasure and Comfort of Religion, the Government of our Thoughts and of the Tongue, Happiness and Misery, a cheerful and a wounded Spirit, Flattery, Reproof, Agur's Wish, Public Worship, Dreams, the Abuse of Names and Words, Modesty and Shame, learned Pride, the Philosophy of Scripture:—Sermons on public Occasions, and five Charges, on reading the Scriptures, the Increase of Popery, the Licentiousness of the Times; the late Attempts against the Church, and a Dissuasive from Schism.*

In the first dissertation his lordship proves, that Moses was the author of the Pentateuch; from general fame and tradition, from citations by other ancient authors, from being delivered to a whole nation together, from internal proofs and arguments, and the refutation of objections. He then shews, that he is deserving of peculiar regard and attention from his being the oldest author now extant, from his fame among heathen writers, from the importance of his subjects, his qualifications, his learning, his style, his impartiality, and his inspiration.

In his account of the fall, he says, the language of Moses is extremely figurative, being taken from the ancient pictures and hieroglyphics, wherein these transactions were first recorded. In conformity to this idea, he supposes the serpent to be only the symbol of the tempter; the eating of the forbidden fruit to be nothing more than a continuation of the same hieroglyphic characters, denoting a violation of a divine prohibition, the indulgence of an unlawful appetite, and the aspiring after forbidden knowledge; that the tree of life is a figurative expression, like the rest, an emblem only of a happy immortality, and no more to be understood of a real tree in this place, than it is in Revelation, ii. 7. xxii. 2, 14.

It is commonly said, that God 'set a mark upon Cain,' Gen. iv. 15. and the conjectures concerning this mark, have been various and ridiculous. Our author supposes that the true meaning of the text is, 'that God gave him a sign or token to confirm his promise; such as was frequently asked,

† Whiston assured the world, that the restoration of the Jews, and the Millennium, would commence on or before the year 1766.—Pag. 322.

and frequently granted in succeeding times, as we read in other parts of Scripture; and such, whatever it was, as allayed and quieted Cain's fears and apprehensions.

In the same chapter we meet with a very obscure passage concerning Lamech, on which his Lordship offers the following conjecture:

“Of this Lamech Moses has thought fit to preserve (ch. iv. ver. 23, 24.) a short fragment, which was handed down by tradition, and appears to have been composed in metre, to be sung, perhaps, to some of his son Jubal's instruments of music. As we knew not the occasion, we cannot be certain of the meaning of this little sketch of ancient poetry. But what appears to me the most probable account of it is, that the family of Cain, having long lived under apprehensions of Adam's family coming, and taking revenge for the murder of Abel, and Tubal-Cain having lately invented weapons and instruments of war, Lamech therefore proclaims unto his wives, who were more liable to these fears and apprehensions, that they might now rest in peace and security. What reason is there for these fears and apprehensions? Have I slain a man that I should be wounded, and a young man that I should be hurt? For with the Arabic version I would read the sentence interrogatively? Which interrogation is equivalent to a negation, as the Chaldee paraphrases it, “I have not slain,” &c. If then the murder of Cain, who committed the fact, shall be amply avenged, “avenged sevenfold,” as God hath declared, surely the murder of Lamech, or any of his innocent family, shall be more amply avenged, “avenged seventy and sevenfold.” Wherefore be of good courage, I have done no violence, and I fear none.”

Commentators have been much divided in their explanations of these words, in Gen. xi. 4. ‘Let us make us a name.’ Our author, with Perizonius and other learned men, takes the Hebrew word שֵׁם *Sem* in the sense of the Greek word *σημα*, *fema*, which probably was derived from it, and understands by it a sign, a monument, a land-mark. This interpretation renders the sense clear and obvious. The builders of Babel intended to erect a landmark to prevent their dispersion.

Many learned men have asserted, that the primitive and original language was the Hebrew. But, upon this supposition, his lordship thinks, ‘that it will be very difficult to account how the Hebrew came to be the language of Canaan, and why the wicked posterity of accursed Ham should be suffered to retain their first language, and be more exempted from the confusion at Babel than any other people. For, says he, that the Hebrew was the language of Canaan, appears not only from all the remaining monuments of the Canaanitish

or Phœnician language, but is expressly so called by the prophet Isaiah, ch. xix. 18.—The utmost that we can allow to the Hebrew is, that it might be a dialect of the primitive language, as also might the Chaldee, Syriac, and Arabic, which, as being the daughters of the same parent, have some family-likeness and resemblance to one another. What appears most probable is, that the primitive and original language was lost in the confusion at Babel, some few words, perhaps, and names only, being retained in other languages.

In his account of Lot's wife, our author supposes, 'that looking behind, contrary to the express order of the angel, and lingering on the plain, she was overtaken by the shower, so that her body was all incruſted over with a mixture of salt and sulphur, and was left standing there like a pillar.' Josephus, he observes, affirms, that this pillar was to be seen in his time; and the Jerusalem Targum asserts, that it will endure till the resurrection. His lordship very properly adds, 'There is something that the inhabitants of the country shew now-a-days to strangers for this pillar of salt; but the most intelligent and judicious travellers pay no regard or attention to it; they look upon it in the same light as upon other superstitious relics.'—It may be curious to observe, how the author of a poem, entitled *Sodoma*, printed among the works of Tertullian, embellishes the story. The image, says he, is perpetually preserved, without diminution:

* *Dicitur et vivens alio jam corpore, sexus
Munificos solito dispungere sanguine menses.*

Such outrages on common sense ought to be treated with the utmost contempt.

In his Dissertation on Dreams, the bishop prefers the hypothesis of Mr. Baxter, who supposes them to be caused by spiritual agents. This opinion, however, he allows, is liable to inexplicable difficulties; and therefore he chiefly employs himself in pointing out the proper uses to which dreams may be applied. Our dreams, he thinks, will shew us our natural disposition and temper; will afford us no inconsiderable arguments for the immateriality and immortality of the soul; and convince us of the necessity of preserving a good conscience, by fearing God, who has an absolute power over the soul, and can either ravish it with the most pleasing images, or torment it with the most terrible visions; and, if there were no other heaven or hell, could constitute one in the human bosom.—The last of these three lessons is, perhaps, the best we can learn from our dreams: the first is inconsistent with Baxter's hypothesis.

The third volume contains Dissertations on the Expediency of the Christian Revelation, on John the Baptist, on our Saviour's Incarnation, the Time of his Appearance, the Names of Jesus and Christ, his private Life, Temptation, Fasting, Miracles, the Lord's Prayer, the Service of the Church, the Demoniacs, the Blasphemy against the Holy Ghost, Swearing, the Parable of the Tares and the Talents, Heresies and Schisms, the two great Commandments, the Import of Mark ix. 49, 50, the Parable of the Prodigal, Luxury, our Saviour's Discourse with the Woman of Samaria, his Eloquence, his Sufferings, his Resurrection, Ascension, Christianity our true Liberty, the Infidelity of the Jews, the Christian Sacraments, the Use of Reason in Religion, Mysteries, the long Life of St. John, St. Paul's Eloquence, St. Paul at Melita, Confirmation, the Love of Novelty, running in Debt, St. Paul's Description of Charity, Self Knowledge, Anger, the Beauty of Virtue, Conversation, abstaining from all Appearance of Evil, the Prevalence of Popery, the Nature of Angels, Infidelity of the present Age, the Recompence of the Reward, the Sin which easily besets us, the Romish Clergy, the Cessation of Miracles, the Difficulties of Scripture, the intermediate State, the Resurrection, the general Judgment, and the final State of Men.

In these Dissertations the bishop maintains the orthodox opinion relative to Jesus Christ; he asserts, that our Lord's temptation was not a visionary, but a real transaction; that the demoniacs were persons really possessed by evil spirits; that miracles were performed after the days of the apostles; that the souls of men exist in an intermediate state; that the dead will not rise with the same bodies; that repentance is not impossible even in hell; and that there may be a universal restitution.

We could extract many passages from these very learned Dissertations, which would be highly acceptable to the curious and intelligent reader; but the limits prescribed to this article will not allow us to enlarge.

Thirty-Two Sermons on Plain and Practical Subjects. By the late Rev. Thomas Pyle. Vol. III. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Robinson.

THOMAS Pyle, the author of these discourses, was the son of a clergyman, and was born at Stodey, near Holt, in Norfolk, in 1674. He was educated at Caius college, Cambridge, where he took the degree of M. A. was near fifty years lecturer and minister of King's Lynn, and was also prebendary of Salisbury.

He first distinguished himself as a writer in the famous Bangorian controversy, and afterwards acquired a more considerable reputation, by his excellent Paraphrase on the Acts of the Apostles, the Epistles, the Revelation of St. John, and the Historical Books of the Old Testament.

Mr. Pyle was intimately acquainted with bishop Hoadly, who gave him his preferment in the church of Salisbury, Dr. Samuel Clarke, and Dr. Sykes. He was a learned, rational, and judicious divine, and an admired preacher.

The two former volumes of his discourses were published in 1773; and four sermons on the Good Samaritan, and the Nature of Christ's Kingdom, were printed in 1777.

The manuscripts, from which this third volume is printed, was sent to the editor, Mr. Philip Pyle, by the executrix of Dr. Edmund Pyle, and by his brother, Mr. Thomas Pyle, Prebendary of Winchester.

These discourses contain a fund of solid sense and rational piety, adapted to the understanding of every reader, with a remarkable perspicuity of style and method.

The following extract from a plain practical sermon on Covetousness, will confirm this observation.

This idolatrous power of riches is but too visible, from daily experience, in the conduct of all people, who have ever addicted themselves to the pursuit of them. Wherever a passionate fondness for earthly treasures has once taken possession, the man becomes deaf to all arguments, that concern his Christian life, or the treasures of another world. And the attempting to persuade him, or to make him a convert, is exactly like offering addresses of love to a heart, whose whole affections are previously engaged.

If you would attack him in his sensible part, and make sure of his attention, you must talk to him in a different stile, upon quite other topics! Tell him he is in danger of having his house broke open, and all his bags rifled. Tell him there are some shrewd suspicions lately started, touching the validity of his title to one of his estates. Tell him of a profuse young heir, who much wants present cash, and will give him exorbitant interest for his money, upon undoubted security. Offer him a bribe with a decent grace: or put him into the way of making a bargain; somewhat illegal indeed, but highly advantageous. Inform him that you are acquainted with a proficient in the law, who will undertake his cause at all events; and is master of such rhetoric, as to render any cause, just or unjust, victorious. On all these points, you speak intelligibly: the man's ear is open: he thoroughly understands every syllable you say.

But

But discourse to him, with the tongue of an angel, upon disinterested virtue. Assure him, that this life is only a passage to another; that riches are only talents, committed to him by Providence, for the exercise of his bounty; that to love money too much, is not to love himself at all; that to dispense it in acts of charity, will procure him the favour of God, and "bags in heaven, that never wax old; where no thief approacheth, nor moth corrupteth." In what light, think you, will such doctrines appear to him? Why, as the empty visions of moralists and divines! Or perhaps he will see them in a different view, and resolve them into the artifice of priests or politicians, to enslave the world! However, in all probability, he will not hear one half of what you have to alledge. Or if he does, it will be just such a hearing as the Jews gave their prophet Ezekiel. "He will hear thy words, but he will not do them: and his heart will turn back, after his covetousness."

Thus proceeds the life of a worldly-minded man, and thus it mostly ends! Thoughtless of what is heavenly, and closely tied down to the earth that bare him! Till either an early death snatches him from all the joys he had set his poor heart upon; or else old age comes, to augment the evil, and to sink him still lower in every qualification. For age generally encreases that distemper of mind, above all others. Jealousy, needless suspicion, excessive caution, are the infirmities that grow up with advancing years. And, at last, the approach of death renders him totally unable to look, either backward or forward. Behind him he sees what he would fain carry away with him; but that is impossible. Before him lies a state, for which he has made no kind of provision; which therefore affords him not the smallest glimpse of hope, and presents to him many most substantial fears. So he leaves the world, as the young man in the Gospel left our Saviour; "very sorrowful, because he had great possessions."

In this volume the author treats of the following useful subjects: All Men are Sinners,—Against Covetousness,—How Men darken the Light within them,—Abstinence from all Appearance of Evil,—How Christians have their Names written in Heaven,—Religious Contemplation,—The Sin of Achan, Jos. vii. 13.—The Sinfulness of evil Thoughts,—The Crime of covering our Sins,—Confession of Sin,—The Wisdom of the Serpent,—The Innocence of the Dove,—How God gives Men to Christ,—The Necessity of Heresies,—The promiscuous Distribution of present Good and Evil,—The Prosperity of the Wicked,—The Adversity of good Men,—And the supreme Good of Man.

This volume completes the collection of Mr. Pyle's discourses.

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*A History of the English Law, from the Saxons to the End of the
Reign of Edward the First. By John Reeves, Esq. Barrister
at Law. 4to. 1l. 4s. Brookes.*

WHEN a lawyer suffers any part of his time to be broke in upon by a literary pursuit, he claims an attention in proportion to the sacrifice he makes. The profits and honours of the profession are such a temptation, and the attendance necessary to attain them so unremitting, that few are disposed to look farther than these scraps of knowledge that are more directly useful. If any carry their researches farther, and attempt to furnish assistance to the studies of others by any publication, it is a work of supererogation, that must be received with great indulgence, whatever the real merit of it may be: our author in this light has a claim to some consideration; but the praise he may acquire must depend on the subject he has chosen, and the manner in which he has treated it.

It has been the taste of the present age to look into the history of our constitution and laws; and several treatises upon parts of our old jurisprudence have been published. These have contributed to open a subject which was capable of much more discussion. Dalrymple's Feudal Tenures is an essay towards a larger work, which the author seems to have had in contemplation. Sullivan's Lectures are principally confined to the same subject as the foregoing work, that is, the origin and progress of the feudal constitution; but it is done more fully, and without any allusion to the Scotch law, which so frequently obscures the former: it contains also much discourse upon other parts of our law, and is a very valuable introduction. In Dr. Henry's History, the progress of our laws is made a part of his plan; and this subject is handled by that author with the same ability with which he treats the others. To these modern authors may be added Nathaniel Bacon's Historical Discourse on the Laws and Government of England, Hale's History of the Common Law, and others of less note.

Notwithstanding the public were in possession of these performances, our author thought the history of our law was a field still open to new adventurers, and has hazarded an attempt of his own, to exhibit it in a new light. The method in which he has done this will best appear from his own words, in the dedicatory preface to the late lord chancellor Thurlow.

The plan on which I have pursued this attempt is wholly new. I found that modern writers, in discoursing of the ancient law, were too apt to speak in modern terms, and always with reference to some modern usage: hence it followed, that

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what they adduced was strangely distorted and misrepresented, with a view of displaying, and accounting for, certain coincidences in the law at different times. As this produced very great mistakes, it appeared to me, that, in order to have a right conception of our old jurisprudence, it would be necessary to forget, for a while, every alteration which has been made since; to enter upon it with a mind wholly unprejudiced, and peruse it with the same attention that is bestowed on a system of modern law. The law of the time would then be learnt in the language of the time, untinctured with new opinions; and when that was clearly understood, the alterations made therein in subsequent periods might be deduced, and exhibited to the mind of a modern reader in as simple and intelligible a form, as they were to persons who lived in those several periods. Farther, if our statutes, and the interpretations of them, with the changes that have happened in the maxims, rules, and doctrines of the law, were related in the order in which they severally took place; such a history, from the beginning of our oldest memorials down to the present time, would convey to the reader a tolerably just and complete account of our whole law as it stands at this day, with that advantage which an arrangement conformable with the nature of the subject, enjoys over one that is merely artificial.

The time of the Saxons is thrown into an Introduction; and the author seems hastening to a period, which he considers as the proper point of departure from whence a juridical historian should set out, namely, the establishment made in consequence of the Conquest. What he says of the Saxons is entirely confined to their judicial polity; not entering into the grand question of the constituent members of the legislative assembly of the witenagemote, nor even that concerning the existence of tenures. He seems to disregard those questions, which have detained so many authors in the labyrinth of Saxon antiquity, and to confine himself to such as are less obscure, but, in his opinion (and perhaps justly), more worthy of notice. He is therefore more full upon the law of private rights and of criminal justice than former writers, who have been more diffuse upon the Saxon customs in general.

After stating the writers who have maintained the affirmative and negative of the question about the existence of feuds, he goes on thus.

After this difference of opinion, some later writers have taken a middle course. Dalrymple and Sullivan endeavour to compromise the dispute, by admitting an imperfect system of feuds to have subsisted before the Conquest. Perhaps the latter of these opinions may be nearest the truth. A system of policy that had prevailed over all parts of Europe, it is most probable, got footing in England, inhabited by persons descended from

the same common stock, and possessed of the country they then enjoyed under like circumstances with the nations on the continent. But the feudal law, in the time of our Saxon kings, was in no part of Europe brought to the perfection it afterwards received; and in this country, separated from the world, and receiving by slow degrees a participation of such improvements as were made in jurisprudence on the continent, we are not to look for a complete system of feudal law. At the later part of this period, feuds were very little more than in their infant state; they were seldom more than estates for life. It appears there were estates of this kind, under a species of tenure, among the Saxons; and it has before been said, that there was the relation of lord and vassal. Without engaging in a controversy of this extent and difficulty, it will be more satisfactory to observe what facts we really know of the property of their lands, than hunt after conclusions which have eluded the greatest learning and sagacity. We know that the lands of the Saxons were liable to the *trinoda necessitas*; one of which was a military service on foot; another, *arcis constructio*; and another, *pontis constructio*. They were in general hereditary; and they were partible equally among all the sons: they were alienable at the pleasure of the owner; and were devisable by will. They did not escheat for felony; and landlords had a right to seize the best beast or armour of their dead tenant as a heriot. This is the outline of landed property among the Saxons.

The author's sentiments upon the study of such remote antiquity are conveyed in the following paragraph, which closes his account of the Saxon laws and customs.

'This is a sketch of that system of jurisprudence which subsisted among our Saxon ancestors. The materials which furnish any knowledge of it are so few and scanty, that it is with the utmost difficulty any thing consistent can be collected from them. This must give rise to a variety of opinions, according to the prejudices and different turns of thinking in antiquarians. However, though the accounts given of this people and their legislation may be different, where so much depends on conjecture, perhaps the clearest opinion that can be formed respecting such distant and obscure times, is not worth defending with much obstinacy.'

It is not easy to say how far the author's want of earnestness in this particular may be relished by the lovers of Saxon antiquities. Certain it is, that when the changes in our laws are to be deduced from a known period, the remains we have of Saxon customs seem very little capable of application or inference.

The Conquest, then, is considered by our author as the period from whence his history is to begin; when, to use his own words, 'a new order of things commenced, the nature of
landed

landed property was changed, the rules by which personal property were directed were modified, a new system of judicature was erected, new forms of proceeding were devised, and new modes of redress conceived.

In the same temper in which he passed over the two questions about the witenagemote and tenures, he now dismisses that about the term *conquest*, with this remark: 'That the tyranny of a prince who lived seven hundred years ago cannot be a precedent for the oppressions of his successors; or any length of time establish a prescription, against the unalienable rights of mankind.'

Having in this manner disengaged himself from all unnecessary discussions, he proceeds to the subject which he had particularly in view; that is, an account of the establishment made in our judicial polity, either immediately or in consequence of the Norman invasion; such as tenures and their kinds, the nature of descent, of the judicature of the *aula regis*, justices itinerant, of the bench, the chancery, and council, the division of the spiritual from the ecclesiastical court, the introduction of the Roman and canon law, of trials by duel and by jury, of fines, of the nature of writs and records. All these constitute the materials of the first chapter, and comprise such progress as was made in forming our judicial polity between the time of William the Conqueror and Henry the Second.

Of these objects of enquiry none more engages the attention than the origin of the trial by jury, which our author has investigated minutely, so as to exhibit a clear and curious history of its first formation. Want of room prevents us from transcribing the whole, but the following particulars are too curious to be omitted.

'The earliest mention we find of any thing like a jury, was in a cause where Gundulph, bishop of Rochester, was a party, upon a question of land, in the reign of the Conqueror. The king had referred it to the county, i. e. the *secutores*, to determine in their county court, as the course then was, according to the Saxon establishment; and they gave their opinion of the matter. But Odo, bishop of Baieux, who presided at the hearing of the cause, not being satisfied with their determination, directed, that if they were still sure that they spoke truth, and persisted in the same opinion, they should chuse twelve from among themselves, who should confirm it upon their oaths. It should seem the bishop had here taken a step which was not in the usual way of proceeding, but which he ventured upon in conformity with the practice of his own country, the general law of England being, that a judicial enquiry concerning a fact should be collected *per omnes comitatus probus homines*. Thus it appears

appears, that in a cause where this same Odo was one party, and archbishop Lanfranc the other, the king directed *totum comitatum considerare*; that all men of the country, as well French as English, particularly those of the latter, learned in the law and custom of the realm, should be convened: upon which they all met at Pincedena, and there it was determined *ab omnibus illis probis*, and agreed and adjudged *à toto comitatu*. In the reign of William Rufus, in a cause between the monastery of Croyland and Evan Talbois, in the county court, there is no mention of a jury; and so late as the reign of Stephen, in a cause between the monks of Christ Church, Canterbury, and Radulph Picot, it appears from the acts of the court that it was determined *per judicium totius comitatus*.

The second and third chapters of this work contain a complete view of our laws, as they stood at the close of Henry the Second's reign; for which our author is principally indebted to Glanville, who is supposed to have compiled his treatise by the command of that prince. This account is divided into the rights of persons, the rights of things, and the proceedings of courts.

As little is said by Glanville upon the first of these heads, our author does little more than take notice of the distinction between freemen and villains, and then proceeds to those rights of property claimed by individuals, under particular circumstances. The first of these is Dower, which is discussed very fully; in the illustration of which the law of Alienation and Succession is necessarily stated. The title of Maritagium properly introduces an account of the order of Descent, of the nature of Testaments, of the restrictions laid on Heirs during their minority by Wardship and Marriage; then of Legitimacy and Escheat. The Right of Lords to the Service of their Tenants by Homage and Relief, with a mention of Aids, closes the second division.

The manner in which justice was administered requires a more minute and circumstantial discourse, as it is the foundation upon which great part of our present judicial process is built.

The natural division of the subject is into Civil and Criminal Pleas. Both these were farther artificially divided by the separate jurisdictions to which causes of certain descriptions belonged. In both the sheriff had cognisance of such as were of lesser importance; while causes of difficulty and consequence, or crimes which required any severity of punishment, were appropriated to the king's courts.

The most important civil suit was that of a Writ of Right, of which, and its process, our author gives a very circumstantial account, from the summons to the judgment. The only ancient way of decision in this action was by the duel. The alteration

alteration made by Henry II. in this part of the law claims our attention; not only as discountenancing that absurd mode of trial, but as tending to avoid the formal delays, to which the parties, according to the old process, were subject. By this provision also the trial by jury was established, and brought into frequent use, if not instituted. The mutual connections between the lord and tenant, in relation to their respective rights, which they lost or acquired by this action, are, in the next place, clearly examined. The method of recovering other species of property, such as Advowsons, Villains, and Dower, which, from their nature, required a distinct process, concludes the second chapter.

From the incroachments of the Ecclesiastical Court, in claiming jurisdiction over all pleas relating to the first of these three heads, originated, probably, the writ of Prohibition now in such frequent use; which is the strongest proof of the controul of the civil courts over the ecclesiastical.

Those amicable compositions called Fines, which constitute so essential a part of modern conveyancing, fall next under our author's consideration. The notoriety and validity of this proceeding, transacted in open court, and confirmed by its record, soon brought it into frequent use. The mention of fines naturally leads to a brief inquiry into the nature of Records, and the courts which had the power of thus registering their proceedings. The remedies given to the lord against his tenant, who either withdrew his services, or incroached on his manerial rights, conclude the history of the actions then in use for asserting rights to lands, and their appendant services.

The universal prevalence of the civil law, when it did not interfere with the doctrine of tenures, is no where more apparent than in the division and distinction of the several sorts of debts, which our author next proceeds to treat of; in the course of which subject something is said on the law of Mortgages, buying and selling, and other commercial or confidential transactions. These were all the actions which might be originally commenced in the *curia regis*; to which is properly subjoined some account of Attornies, by whom all business of a civil nature might be transacted in the absence of the parties.

The *curia regis* had a jurisdiction over the inferior courts, temporal as well as spiritual; when the former failed in justice, the cause was removed: when the latter interfered in temporal matters, their proceedings were stayed by prohibition.

A full and accurate account of the several sorts of assizes, which were instituted by Henry the Second, closes the Discourse on Civil Pleas, one of which, namely, that *de morte an-*

tecessoris,

was an original proceeding. The others, in our author's opinion, were resorted to, by the assent of the parties, for settling some collateral point, on which they each rested their cause.

The criminal laws in those days were short and simple. Our author, in treating of them, having premised some few observations on the laws made before Henry the Second's time, explains the modes of prosecution, and the nature of the several crimes cognizable in the king's court; to which he subjoins an account of the proceedings before the justices itinerant.

Thus ends what may be called the History of the Law in this period, which is done with accuracy and perspicuity. —What follows is valuable; and though not immediately within the scope of our author's plan, is closely connected with it. However, the reader will peruse with pleasure the history of our constitution at this early period; of those famous charters, the corner-stones and foundations upon which our present constitution has been erected; the characters of our first kings in their legislative capacity, their laws, and their statutes.

This chapter concludes with a view of the law-treatises of that period, and particularly of Glanville, to whom our author is under great obligations. The length of this article must be our excuse for not giving our readers any more extracts; we shall therefore to refer them to the work itself, which contains a fund of legal and constitutional information. [Corresp.]

[To be continued.]

Observations on the Commerce of the American States. With an Appendix. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

WHEN a nobleman enters upon the investigation of an intricate, political, or commercial subject, with the view only of promoting the interests of the community, he certainly is entitled to the grateful acknowledgments of the public. Such is the situation of lord Sheffield in the pamphlet now before us, which displays a more extensive acquaintance with the American commerce than we have hitherto found in any other writer. His lordship sets out with remarking, that we ought henceforth to consider America entirely in the light of a foreign country; and that great sacrifices to her interests, on the part of Great Britain, are neither requisite nor expedient. He condemns the impatience with which we have endeavoured to pre-occupy the American market; an eagerness which has likewise been indulged by our rival nations, and

and has proved the means of already stocking, or most probably overstocking America, with European commodities. In confirmation of this opinion, we are told that British goods of several kinds were cheaper last year in New-York than in London; and that the last letters from Philadelphia mention several articles twenty-five per cent. cheaper.

Lord Sheffield is firmly of opinion, that the British merchants, from their superior power of accommodating the American traders, will, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the other maritime nations, obtain, almost exclusively, that important branch of commerce; an idea which we are glad to find his lordship establish upon a more solid basis than that of sanguine expectation alone. With this view the noble author points out what are the wants of America; what this country can provide her with, which cannot be procured elsewhere on terms equally advantageous; and what are the productions of America to give in return. His lordship observes, that the imports and exports of the American States must in general, from many causes, be, for a long time to come, the same as formerly. Beginning with the imports from Europe, lord Sheffield divides them into those in which Great Britain will have scarce any competition; those in which she will have competition; and those which she cannot supply to advantage. In the first of these classes are woollens; iron and steel manufactures of every kind; porcelain and earthen ware of all qualities, except the most gross and common; glass; stockings, shoes, buttons, hats, haberdashery, and millinery; tin in plates, lead in pigs and in sheets; copper in sheets, and wrought into kitchen and other utensils; painters colours; cordage and ship-chandlery; jewellery, and ornamental as well as useful articles of Birmingham manufacture; materials for coach-makers, saddlers, and upholsterers; medicinal drugs; steel in bars; Indian trade; and books.

The second class, or that in which there may be competition, consists of the following, viz. linens, sail-cloth, paper and stationary ware, laces, callicoes and printed goods, silks, salt from Europe, tea and India goods in general, salt-petre and powder, lawns, thread, and hemp.

The third class comprises the after-mentioned, viz. wine, brandies, geneva, oil, raisins, figs, olives and other fruits, and cambrics.

Lord Sheffield observes, that the principal part, at least four-fifths, of the exports from Europe to America were at all times made on credit; that the American States are in a greater want of credit now than at former periods; and that it can only be had in Great Britain, the French merchants

not

not being able, and the Dutch not willing, to afford it, except on the best security. His lordship thence infers, that nearly four-fifths of the American importations will be from Great Britain directly; that where articles are nearly equal, the superior credit given by England will always ensure the preference; and that many foreign articles will probably go to America through Great Britain.

The noble author afterwards gives a similar detail of the articles exported from America to Europe and the West Indies, upon each of which, as well as on the imports above enumerated, he makes judicious observations. The result of his lordship's enquiry is the establishment of the doctrine, that nothing can be more weak than the idea of courting commerce with the Americans; that a regard to their own interests renders such conduct unnecessary; and that by endeavouring to gain their attachment in particular, we shall disgust nations with which we have great intercourse, and prejudice the best trade we have.

After giving the above general account of this judicious and interesting pamphlet, we shall present our readers with two short extracts, which highly merit the attention of those in power.

‘ This (tobacco) being the principal article of American commerce, deserves much attention from government. It was exported from Virginia, Maryland, and North Carolina, to Great Britain only, where it was sorted and re-exported unmanufactured, except a quantity not very considerable. The exportation being now free to every part, it remains to be determined by experience, if it be more advantageous to transport it to every country where it is consumed, or to carry it first to one general market to meet the purchaser, and to be sorted for the different markets. This business is understood in Great Britain only, and to encourage America to make this country the general market, the tobacco should be permitted to be put into the king's warehouses, and there only, without paying any duty, a bond being only given by the importer to pay the duty for such part as should be sold for home consumption; what is exported should go out free of all duty. It will be sent in large quantities in return, or payment for our manufactures, and we can afford to give the best price in this manner, by taking it in return. Before the war it was imported on a double bond, and the merchant, on paying 3*l.* per hogshead, took it into his own possession, and had eighteen months to export it, or pay the duty, then 7*d.* per pound. Since the war new regulations have been made, and the duty has been encreased from 7*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* per pound, and the tobacco is locked up by the officers of the customs till the duty is paid, or an entry made for exportation.

‘ By

* By a late order of the king and council, every importer of tobacco depositing tobacco in the king's stores, must pay 4*l*. per hogshead, by way of pledge or deposit, to make a part of the duty if used for inland sale, or to be drawn back if exported; this measure certainly will operate strongly against making Great Britain an entrepot for tobacco, because it subjects the importer to an advance of 50 per cent. on the value, without any benefit whatever to government, and on the supposition that two-thirds of the tobacco of America would center in Britain to be assorted for other markets, it would divert from the capitals of the merchants 200,000*l*. to lie dead in the custom-house, which might otherwise be usefully employed in the trade. This restriction, while Dunkirk, Holland, &c. are open without any advance whatever, will, if not speedily altered, divert the carrying trade of tobacco to those ports; by way of deposit. It is the worst policy to throw the Americans into new tracks. If they are encouraged, by equal advantages, to bring their tobacco to Britain to be assorted there, ships will consequently load from Britain in return, in place of Holland and Dunkirk. The tobacco will be left to pay for the goods, or to form a fund of credit, which will attach and rivet the trade to this country.

* The idea of obliging a merchant to advance 4*l*. for liberty to store a hogshead of tobacco, which costs eight or nine pounds, appears too absurd not to meet the immediate attention of his majesty's ministers.

* Free ports at Bermuda, the Bahamas, the West Indies, &c. have been suggested, as a means of assisting commerce, but they will be dangerous to our carrying trade; they will undoubtedly be the means of dividing it with others. America, or the shipping of any nation, would carry from them our West India produce where they pleased. They may be advantageous to individuals; but if a free port is in any case necessary, or proper, it must be at Bermuda, or one of the Bahama islands, for those articles only that it may be absolutely necessary for the British West India islands to have from the southern American States, viz. Indian corn and rice, and rum only should be received in return. The laws of Congress could not prevent the Americans from running to Bermuda with their provisions, &c. In many respects free ports are exceptionable; but the allowing the produce and merchandise of the American States (imported only in ships of that country or of Britain) to be stored, until a sale can be made of them at home, or in some other part of Europe, might be of great advantage to both countries. The produce and merchandise when landed should, if sold for consumption in the kingdom, be subject to, and pay, when taken from the warehouses, the duties and taxes which are, or may be, laid upon such articles; but such part as shall be re-exported to foreign markets, should be subject to no burthen whatever, excepting the usual store-rent, and unavoidable charges at the custom-house. By this means the British merchant will have the management,

management and advantages to be derived from the sales; and the American, without running the risk, and incurring the expences of going from one port to another, will be at all times sure of the best market to be had in Europe. The American commerce, especially for the most necessary and the most bulky articles, would, in a great measure, center in this kingdom; and the merchants in America, not being able to make remittances in advance, but, on the contrary, obliged to go in great part on credit, being able thus to deposit her effects at the disposal of her correspondents, at the highest market which can be had in Europe, and in case they are universally low on the arrival of the produce, to wait a demand, and rise of them, will derive a very essential advantage; and the British merchant being secured in his demands, will be induced to answer the American orders for goods, previous to the sale of the articles shipped to him for payment. By adopting this plan we should have the carrying from hence of the several articles, or great part of them, in British ships. This might in a great degree prevent the ships of the American States from going to other countries, and taking from thence produce and manufactures merely for a freight, though not so advantageous; and it would promote the taking through Britain such articles as the American States may want from other countries, which this country does not supply. The articles should be placed in public stores, and only certain ports should be allowed to receive them. France is not without the idea of opening ports in the manner now mentioned. The idea is suggested for consideration, and may be worthy attention; and it is the opinion of some, that it might be extended to goods from other countries as well as from America, to promote an increase of the trade and navigation of this country.

We have only to add, in favour of the observations of lord Sheffield, that they appear to be the result of great enquiry and information; which has been so extensive, that, in a large Appendix, a particular account is given of the exports and imports of America, at different periods, with the quantity of shipping, and the number of seamen employed.

Joseph: A Poem. In Nine Books. Translated from the French of M. Bitaubé. In Two Volumes. 12mo. 6s. Cadell.

THE story of Joseph has been always accounted a beautiful and interesting narrative. Voltaire thought it a subject highly proper for the Epic Muse. In the same view M. Bitaubé has made choice of it for the ground-work of this poem. Though his work is in prose, he has preserved the usual arrangement of the epopea. That is, he has quitted the historical order, and transported his readers at once into the

the middle of the subject. At the beginning of the first book, we find his hero attending the flocks of Potiphar, in a lonely retreat, on the banks of the Nile. Here Zaluca, Potiphar's wife, accidentally sees him, conceives a passion for him, and engages him to tell her his story. In the second book he relates to her his misfortunes, and his attachment to Selima, a young shepherdess, who had been adopted into Jacob's family. The third book describes the progress of Zaluca's passion, her disappointment, and revenge. The fourth contains an account of Joseph in the dungeon; the fifth his interpretation of the dreams of Amenophis, Darval, and Pharaoh; his advancement, and the death of Zaluca. The sixth presents the reader with a description of Egypt. The seventh is an account of the famine, of Joseph's administration, and his discovery to his brethren. In the eighth, Benjamin relates to Joseph the history of his father and his brethren, during the time of Joseph's captivity. And the last contains an account of Jacob's descent into Egypt, his interview with Joseph, the settlement of his family in Goshen, and the nuptials of Joseph and Selima.

These are the principal events; and this is the order in which they are arranged. A variety of descriptions and episodes, or less important incidents, subordinate to the principal action, are occasionally introduced, in order to diversify and embellish the story. In several instances the author has recourse to supernatural machinery. In the ninth book, Joseph is transported to the sources of the Nile, and explores the causes of its fertility; he is then carried through the ethereal regions, and instructed in the mysteries of nature. This aerial tour is supposed to be performed in a vision, under the conduct of Ithuriel, the genius of Egypt. But this vision is not conducive to the main action; and is a contrivance which does not seem agreeable to the nature of the epopea.

The moral of this work is unexceptionable; and the author has displayed a lively imagination in many of the episodes and fictitious occurrences, which he has introduced. But by attempting to embellish every part of his work, and even the most trivial circumstances, he disgusts us with his florid language, and pompous descriptions.

Poetical ornaments are undoubtedly necessary. But every thing will not bear embellishment. And continual splendor dazzles and fatigues the reader's imagination. The following incident is related with great simplicity in the original: 'They took Joseph's coat, and killed a kid of the goats, and dipped the coat in the blood.' But observe how it is beautified by this writer:

‘Simeon takes the robe, spreads it on the ground, snatches the kid from its fostering mother. In vain she runs to its aid; he strikes the harmless kid, and its reeking blood distains the garment. Thus this innocent animal, instead of being offered on the altar of the God of the universe, to celebrate the birth of a son, or some other happy event, becomes the victim of the hand of cruelty, and perishes with the loss of a brother.’

In the description of the famine, the author says, ‘While the animals perished in the woods, and in the dry channels of the Nile, the happier birds assembled in clouds around the edifice where the corn was distributed. The grain scattered on the ground became immediately their prey, and they repaid Joseph with their song, the only pleasure which nature, dispoiled of her charms, could afford him.’

These are affected ornaments and puerilities, below the dignity of an epic poem. The author has professedly imitated Gesner’s Death of Abel; and his performance may be very properly placed on the same shelf with that production.—M. Bitaubé has also published a translation of Homer.

Orlando Furioso, translated from the Italian of Lodovico Ariosto. With Notes. By John Hoole. 5 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Cadell.

IN the year 1773, Mr. Hoole published a translation of the first ten books of *Orlando Furioso*, and has now completed his arduous undertaking by the addition of four others: the life of the author, and a preface, originally annexed, are likewise considerably enlarged and improved. The two former versions of this celebrated poem are by no means to be considered as just obstacles to the present attempt. That of sir John Harrington, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, though not destitute of merit, at the time in which it was written, is now too obsolete in its language, too rugged in its diction, to afford the reader much satisfaction; and that of Mr. Huggins, published in the year 1757, though executed with great fidelity, is too flat and prosaic to convey a proper idea of the original.

To point out the merits and defects of Ariosto, is no difficult task; they strike at the first view, and form a strong and glaring contrast. His style is pure and elegant; his descriptions rich and wonderful; his fancy and invention prodigious; his wit brilliant; his satire strong, and humour exquisite: to this must be added almost all the learning of his age. The reverse of the medal exhibits to our view a multiplicity of low, indelicate

Indelicate ideas, or puerile conceits, that often intermingle with, and debase the most sublime and affecting passages; a variety of stories strangely involved in one another, which generally break off in an interesting part, and leave the reader in the most provoking suspense; 'another and another still succeeds,' *modo Thebis modo ponit Athenis*. As we begin to lose sight of the first story, or recollect it with indifference, it bursts upon us when least expected; and thus we are perplexed till the poem concludes. But this strange method has met with its admirers, as tending to excite attention, and prevent satiety; and Ariosto seems perfectly satisfied with his conduct in this respect.

'As at the board, with plenteous viands grac'd,
Cate after cate excites the sickening taste;
So while my Muse repeats her vary'd strains,
Tale following tale the ravish'd ear detains.'

B. 13.

We cannot, however, but consider it as a fault, and thank the translator for his marginal directions, referring us to the page where the story is continued. This tantalizing mode of relation, generally adopted by the old Romance writers, is finely ridiculed by Cervantes, in his account of Don Quixote's combat with the Biscayan. Butler, who likewise frequently laughs at the absurdities of knight-errantry, has the same object in view, when he abruptly breaks off his story of the bear and fiddle. Even Ariosto himself, in some places, seems to treat as a jest the plan he has adopted. Thus, in a highly-interesting passage, at the end of the 14th book, we are desired to wait for the commencement of another, till he can inform us of the event. The reason assigned is, that 'he can sing no more, being extremely hoarse, and wishing for a little repose.'

'— non più di questo canto;
Ch' io son già rauco, e vò posarmi alquanto.'

It is not, indeed, always clear when he means to be ludicrous, and when serious*. Many passages are of so equivocal a nature as to defeat conjecture; and both are often so intimately blended, that they spoil the most affecting narratives. This must have rendered the translator's task extremely difficult; and sometimes the translation seems to require such allowances to be made for it.

* See canto 41. st. 20, 21. where he vindicates the truth of his narrative, most probably by way of jest, from the objections of Fulgoso, archbishop of Salerno, who blamed him for his deviations from probability.

We find not in Ariosto, as in Homer, a connected, well-regulated plan, where the separate parts act in union, and tend to produce the great event. His plan is confused and irregular. From the opening of the poem we are taught to suppose, that Agramant's invasion of France, and overthrow by Charlemain, would form the principal part: excepting, however, the siege of Paris, we hear but little of these monarchs' transactions. From its title, *Orlando Furioso*, and from that hero's being represented in many places as the Christian's most eminent champion, and that their success depended on his recovering his senses, we should naturally expect the greatest exploits would be performed by him, and the war terminated by his single valour. Instead of this, the last account of him is, that he fixed on Rogero's spurs (*gli sproni il conte Orlando a Ruggier strinse*), just before that warrior concludes the performance, by killing in single combat the Christian's most formidable enemy. Indeed Rogero appears throughout the most interesting character, and performs the most brilliant exploits. Though some characters in this poem are strongly drawn, we do not meet with that discrimination which appears so wonderful in the *Iliad*. Ariosto's knights, like Homer's heroes, are all brave and enterprising; but we do not perceive those nicely-blended tints, that diversify their manners, and render them more distinct the more closely they are examined. We are not ignorant that Ariosto has been applauded for drawing a variety of characters; but we cannot, at least comparatively speaking, subscribe to that opinion: not that he is destitute of merit in this respect. The boastful and impious Rodomont, whose name is become proverbial, the original of Tasso's Argantes, the sagacious and elegant Sabrino, Ariosto's Nestor, the tender and affectionate Isabella, the noble-spirited and accomplished Bradamant, the prototype of Spenser's Britomartis, are highly coloured, and delineated with the utmost justice and propriety. Yet still we must think that there is too great a uniformity in the heroic characters—*fortemque Gyan, fortemque Cloanthem*:—and the translator has contrived to strengthen the idea by applying the epithet *good*, without any warrant from the original, often indiscriminately, and almost constantly, to Rogero and Rinaldo, who, in some places, are not represented as patterns of moral virtue.

To carry on a comparison between the Grecian and Ferrara Homer, is idle and superfluous. The latter spurns at the Stagyrite's laws, and appeals to fancy, whim, and genius. They bear, indeed, little more resemblance to each other than a Chinese pagoda does to a Grecian temple: in the latter, art, elegance,

elegance, and simplicity unite; the more exactly we contemplate the edifice, the more it excites our admiration: in the former, objects grotesque and disproportioned strike us at once with astonishment, sometimes perhaps with disgust; yet many inferior ornaments offer themselves occasionally to our view; and an air of magnificence, an irregular kind of splendor, captivates the eye, and dazzles the imagination, which, if more nicely examined, could not satisfy the judgment.

Yet, after allowing all that may be detracted from Ariosto's poetical merit, he still possesses our high esteem and admiration. We perceive something in him more consonant to the idea which Shakspeare, no incompetent judge, seems to have entertained of a true poet, than in any other author we can recollect. How truly descriptive of him are the following lines in the *Midsummer Night's Dream*!

'The poet's eye, in a *fine frenzy* rolling,
Doth glance from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven,
And as *imagination* bodies forth
The forms of *things unknown*, the poet's pen
Turns them to *shape*, and gives to *airy nothing*
A *local habitation*, and a *name*.'

These tricks of strong imagination are peculiarly characteristic of the Italian bard. If any could dispute with him the precedence, in point of fancy and invention, it is Spenser. But let it be considered that, according to his own words, though otherwise applied, in Ariosto,

'The pure well-head of poesy did dwell,
from whence himself and Milton often quaffed the richest draughts of inspiration.

Yet, great and wonderful as Ariosto's creative powers certainly were, we must not attribute all his stories, allusions, &c. to the fertility of his own imagination. He drew from a variety of sources. The Greek and Roman authors, historians as well as poets, supplied him with ample materials. To Boyardo's *Orlando Innamorato*, an unfinished romance, the substance of which is given us by Mr. Hoole, he is indebted for the ground-work of his story. The romantic history of Charlemain, and the twelve Peers or Paladins of France, written by a monk about two hundred years after the death of that prince, furnished him likewise with some of the great outlines of this performance. The name of Turpin, archbishop of Rheims, the friend and companion of Charlemain in his wars, is prefixed to the forgery; and to this ideal prelate Ariosto often gravely appeals, for the confirmation of his most marvellous stories. Others are borrowed from *Morte Arthur*, an old French Romance translated into English, and published by

Caxton, in the year 1484. Some probably from romances now forgot; and even the sacred writers have been ransacked to furnish materials for this variegated composition. But, by additional strokes, either of the humorous or sublime, by altering the conduct or conclusion of his borrowed narratives, he generally makes them peculiarly his own: and though, like Theseus†, in the speech we have already quoted,

We never may believe
These antic fables, nor these fairy toys;
Such shaping fantasies that apprehend
More than cool reason ever comprehends.

Yet still, when once fairly dipt in this enchanting poem, in spite of all its absurdities, and the disappointment we sometimes must expect to find, we are never able to lay it aside without the utmost reluctance: or, to adopt the language of romance, when once entered the lists, we cannot prove so recreant as to decline the combat, though we have the melancholy prospect of a discomfiture before the tournament concludes.

In respect to the translator's merit, we before observed, that he had undertaken no easy task. The romantic turn of the story, the simplicity of the language in which it is conveyed, a certain *naïveté* that characterises the author, are sometimes the principal, or only merit of the original, for several succeeding pages; destitute of poetic ornaments and moral reflections, and sometimes abounding with low and ludicrous ideas. To preserve this simplicity, and characteristic features, without descending into vulgarity, is extremely difficult. That Mr. Hoole sometimes fails is no wonder; that he generally adheres closely to the original, and yet avoids, or softens its absurdities, redounds greatly to his literary reputation. We shall present the reader with a specimen of Ariosto's ludicrous talents, in a passage where they are most improperly applied, as the other part of the story is sublime and pathetic. Orlando is represented as approaching, in a skiff, to the rescue of a distressed damsel, exposed to be devoured by the *Orc*, a strange kind of sea monster:

† Shakespeare's Theseus, like his namesake in Chaucer's *Knight's Tale*, and Fletcher's *Noble Kinsmen*, is a character quite consistent with the laws of chivalry. What is more remarkable, his life in Plutarch reads like an old romance, and the actions ascribed to him by the Grecian poets are as extravagant as any performed by Ariosto's heroes. The leading character of knight errantry is to redress grievances, and punish the wicked: and this Theseus very solemnly professes, in the *Suppliants* of Euripides.

Ἔθος τοῦ τις Ἑλλήνας ἐξελέξαμεν
Αἰ ΚΟΛΑΣΤΗΣ ΤΩΝ ΚΑΚΩΝ καθίσταται,

When,

When, hark! the seas, the woods, the caverns roar!
 The billows swell; and from the depth below,
 In open view appears his monstrous foe.
 As from the humid vale black clouds ascend,
 When gathering storms their pregnant wombs distend;
 So through the liquid brine the monster press'd
 With furious course; beneath his hideous breast
 Vex'd ocean groans—Orlando, void of fear,
 Nor chang'd his colour, nor his wonted cheer;
 Firm in himself, to guard the weeping maid,
 And her dire foe with powerful arm invade,
 Between the land and Orc his course he ply'd,
 But kept undrawn the falchion at his side.

C. xi. f. 35, 36.

These preparatory lines are equally beautiful in the original and translation: but mark what follows.

‘L’ancora con la gomona in man prese,
 Poi con gran cuor l’orribil mostro attese.

Tosto, che l’Orca s’accostò, e scoperse
 Nel schifo Orlando con poco intervallo,
 Per inghiottirlo tanta bocca aperse,
 Ch’entrato un uomo vi faria a cavallo;
 Si spinse Orlando innanzi, e se gl’immerse
 Con quella ancora in gola: e, s’io non fallo,
 Col batello anco, e l’ancora attaccolle
 E nel palato, e ne la lingua molle.’

C. xi. f. 36, 37.

Who but must exclaim with Desdemona, ‘Oh, lame and impotent conclusion!’ It is thus rendered in the translation:

‘Soon as the monster, that to shore pursu’d
 His deathful way, the boat and champion view’d,
 He op’d his greedy throat, that might enshroud
 A horse and horseman in its living tomb!
 Near and more near Orlando dauntless rows,
 Then in his mouth the ponderous anchor throws,
 Whose width forbids the horrid jaws to close.’

Though the passage still appears a little ridiculous, we cannot but acknowledge that Mr. Hoole has acquitted himself as well as its nature would allow, and judiciously omitted Ariosto’s remark, that ‘Orlando, the boat and anchor, (*e s’io non fallo*) hung on the tender tongue of the monster.’ We know not on what account she is converted into a male, contrary to the original, but it is of little consequence. A mode, quite reverse to that Mr. Hoole has adopted, prevails among the Italians, who, when they mean to be particularly polite, address men in the feminine gender.

The following passage is likewise much softened, where Orlando perceives, as he supposes, Angelica at a window, imploring his assistance.

‘ Pargli Angelica udir, che supplicando,
E piangendo gli dica, aita, aita,
La mia virginità ti raccomiendo
Più, che l’anima mia, più che la vita.
Dunque in presenza del mio caro Orlando
Da questo ladro mi farà rapita?
Più tosto di tua man dammi la morte,
Che venir lasci à sì infelice sorte.’ C. xii. f. 15.

Nothing can be more ridiculous than some of the above lines, thus translated by sir John Harrington:

‘ Helpe, now or never helpe ; alas shall I
In mine Orlando’s fight loose my virginitie ?’

Mr. Hoole’s version has a very different effect.

‘ High at a window stood the seeming maid,
And thus, in moving words, implor’d his aid :
Ah ! help !—I give to thy protecting care
My honour, dearer than the vital air !
Shall this vile ravisher his will pursue
Unpunish’d, in my dear Orlando’s view ?
Ah, rather let thy sword prevent my shame,
And save by timely death my virgin fame.’

Sometimes Mr. Hoole is inferior to the original. The 35th stanza, canto 24, is thus rendered :

‘ Rage kindling rage with many a wrathful word,
Against the king Alcestes bar’d his sword,
And slew him spight of each surrounding friend,
Who with drawn weapon would his prince defend.
That day th’ Armenians fled before his hand,
And his brave followers aided with a band
Of Thracians and Cilicians by his pay maintain’d.’

The strength and spirit of the first five lines in Ariosto are but weakly expressed in the translation, and the concluding Alexandrine halts most miserably. We have some others of the same nature.

‘ Whence never could her tidings reach my ear again.’
‘ Not one remains with him, his dearest friend to take.’

Such lines bring too forcibly to our recollection Pope’s idea of the wounded snake, and bear no kind of resemblance to ‘ the long-resounding march and energy divine.’ The passage which describes Rodomont, when inclosed alone in the walls of Paris, and probably borrowed from Virgil’s

gil's account of Turnus, in a similar situation, though not void of merit, seem likewise inferior to the original.

‘ Non fasso, merlo, trave, arco, ò balestra,
Nè ciò che sopra il Saracin percote,
Ponno allentar la sanguinola destra,
Che la gran porta taglia, spezza, e scuote,
E dentro fatto v'ha tanta finestra;
Che ben vedere, e veduto esser puote,
Da i visi impressi di color di morte,
Che tutta piena quivi hanno la corte.
Suonar per gli alti e spaziosi tetti
S'odono gridi, e femminil lamenti.
L'afflitte donne percuotendo i petti
Corron per casa pallide e dolenti;
E abbraccian gli uscì; e i geniali letti,
Che tosto hanno, à lasciare à strane genti.’ C. xvii. ff. 12, 13.

‘ Not beams, nor rafters, from the fabric rent,
Not stones, nor arrows on the Pagan sent,
Nor whirling slings, his dreadful arm can stay:
The crashing portal to his stroke gives way,
While from within the pale and haggard crew
Through many a breach the dire besieger view
The court is fill'd with death; loud clamours rise;
The shrieking females join the soldiers cries;
They beat their breasts, they fly from place to place,
The portals and the genial beds embrace;
Now threatned to receive a foreign race.’

The distinct enumeration of the various instruments with which the besieged annoy their enemy; his different efforts to burst open the gate, and the ‘colour of death’ impressed on the Christians’ countenances, are but faintly imaged in the translation.

The following lines are feeble and trifling; but they become worse by being dilated.

‘ Giunsero al loco il dì; che si dovea
Malagigi mutar ne i cariaggi.’ C. xxv. f. 95.

‘ The hour approach'd, when either Pagan train
Prepar'd to bring each car, and loaded wain,
With Malagigi, Vivian, and the gold
For which the wretched chiefs were bought and sold.’

In the 26th book some knights are introduced, as contemplating a mystical sculpture fabricated by Merlin; among other figures an allegorical monster is represented, by which the commentators suppose Avarice is typified; and Francis the First is complimented with a prophetic description of his signalizing himself in checking her incursions: a delicate and just

just encomium on that monarch, who always distinguished himself as a munificent patron of the arts and sciences.

‘A la Fera crudele il più molesto
Non farà di Francesco il Re de’ Franchi;
E ben convien, che molti ecceda in questo,
E nessun prima, e pochi n’abbia à fianchi;
Quando in splendor real, quando nel resto
Di virtù farà molti parer manchi,
Che già parver compiuti, come cede
Tosto ogn’altro splendor, che’l sol si vede.

L’anno primier del fortunato regno
Non ferma ancor ben la corona in fronte,
Passerà l’Alpe; e romperà il disegno
Di chi à l’incontro avrà occupato il monte.
Da giusto spinto, e generoso sdegno
Che vendicate ancor non sieno l’onte,
Che dal furor da’ paschi, e mandre uscito
L’esercito di Francia avrà patito.’

C. xxvi. f. 43, 44.

These lines are thus rendered:

‘Not one shall more the cruel beast appal
Than Francis, whom the Franks their sovereign call.
He, first of men!—with happy omens led,
The crown scarce settled on his youthful head,
Shall cross th’opposing Alps, and render vain
Whate’er against him would the pass maintain;
Impell’d by generous wrath, t’avenge the shame,
Which from the rustic folds, and sheep cotes came,
With sudden inroad on the Gallic name.’

Four lines of the first stanza are, by a kind of chemical operation, condensed into four words, ‘He, first of men!’ The beautiful comparison of Francis to the sun, before whom ‘the stars hide their diminish’d heads,’ taken probably from Horace’s *velut inter ignes luna minores*, is totally omitted, and the conclusion feeble and obscure.—To point out defects, in a writer of eminence, whose performance has given us singular pleasure, is no agreeable part of our office; but having discharged this duty to the public, we shall proceed with pleasure to considerations of another kind.

[To be continued.]

Remarks on the French and English Ladies, in a Series of Letters, interspersed with various Anecdotes, and additional Matter arising from the Subject. By John Andrews, LL.D. 8vo, 6s. Robinson.

THESE Remarks are extended through a volume, of a size little proportioned to their importance.—We were with difficulty able to follow our author, and, at last, congratulated ourselves

ourselves at the sight of land!—We must, indeed, acknowledge, that some of the Remarks are new, and some of them entertaining; but candour will own, that they are in general the hackneyed representations of every traveller, or the casual observations of an occasional visitant.

The anecdotes, interspersed in this volume, are not always interesting in their nature, or related with the sprightliness which these little histories generally require. The story of Louisa and Narcissa is less exceptionable than some others.—The account of the celebrated Ninon de l'Enclos is, in some respects, different from that which has usually been given; we shall therefore present it to our readers.

She was in all respects, but that of gallantry, a woman of irreproachable character: her behaviour was a model of perfect decency and good breeding; her sentiments were noble and generous in the sublimest degree, and her actions entirely corresponded with them. Many are the anecdotes recorded of her magnanimity and beneficence. What was particularly remarkable, her loves always ended in the strictest and sincerest friendships; her fidelity had frequent trials in the troublesome time she lived in, but always remained inviolable. As her attachments were indiscriminately among the celebrated personages that divided France into factions at that day, she became of course acquainted with many of their secrets, and was often entrusted with deposits of the highest value. But she never betrayed the confidence of any man; and while the spoils of her numerous lovers, friends, and acquaintance, lay at her option, either to secure for their owners, or to waste or embezzle without fear of detection, she was never known to swerve in one single instance, from the strictest rules of disinterestedness and integrity.

This was the more singular and praise-worthy, as she was surrounded by examples of perfidy and baseness. The ministry of cardinal Mazarin was an era of the most shameful venality. Public spirit and private probity received a dreadful shock under his government; and the French were become loose and profligate beyond the precedents of former periods.

When we view Ninon de l'Enclos in this illustrious and exemplary light, when we reflect that she was admired, beloved, and caressed by all that was great and exalted in France, royalty itself not excepted, and that casting the veil of oblivion on one single frailty, she was a pattern of every accomplishment that dignifies her sex; when all these considerations are duly weighed, we need not be surprised, that her name is so respectfully remembered in her country, and that

that her failing is lost and forgotten in the enumeration of the many virtues and eminent qualities that composed her character.

Unhappily, however, for the generations that followed, the splendour that accompanied her public life and actions, seemed in some measure to apologize, and even to atone for her private irregularities. They of course who felt an inclination to imitate her in the least meritorious part of her conduct, did not fail at the same time to propose to themselves an adequate imitation of her excellencies.

Determinations of this kind have doubtless helped to people France with numerous copies of this celebrated original. Neither should it be denied, that many of them have been remarkably successful. They have had the art of allying a system of voluptuous immorality with the exercise of many valuable qualifications, and have often proved very beneficial members of that society, which their actions did not always edify.

But in the midst of those freedoms, in which Ninon thought proper to indulge herself, she had an excuse to plead (if any excuse can be admitted), which is not always in the power of her followers to alledge. She was a single woman, and remained such all her life, notwithstanding the solicitations of men of the first consequence in the realm, to favour them with her hand.

She knew her own nature; and being disposed to persist in the indulgencies she had granted it, she had too much honour to deceive any man by false appearances.

Such probably was the motive that kept her out of the pale of matrimony. Had she ever been prevailed upon to alter her condition, it is equally probable, from the native greatness of her soul, that she would have proved a model of conjugal fidelity.

It were sincerely to be wished, for the honour and happiness of her sex in France, that she had consented to become a wife, as every reason concurs to render it likely that she would have done the highest credit to that appellation.

Memoirs of the Bastille; containing a full Exposition of the mysterious Policy and despotic Oppression of the French Government, in the interior Administration of that State Prison. Translated from the French of Mr. Linguet. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Kearsley.

JUST escaped from the horrors of a prison, from the snares of tyranny and oppression, it may be expected that our author feels the dangers to which he has been exposed; and describes,

describes, with peculiar sensibility, the distress of his confinement, and the refined torment of his persecutors. In this situation, we cannot blame the force of his descriptions, the energy with which they are repeated, nor the accumulated expressions with which each repetition is overwhelmed; but, though his peculiar situation furnishes the true and only reason for this animation, yet we may be allowed to suggest, that they detract, in some degree, from the authenticity of his narrative. We would not be understood to defend the police which establishes a state-inquisition of this kind, or to blame the sensibility of the author, who feels acutely, and expresses his feelings with uncommon force; but to a man in this situation we cannot look for cool observation, or accurate description, except in objects constantly before him.

We purposely avoid the consideration of the crime for which he was compelled to visit these infernal abodes. Even from his own account there was a *suspicion* that he had violated the terms on which he was first recalled; but to inflict a punishment so very disproportioned to the crime, unless there was another foundation besides suspicion, cannot be defended. A description of the cell, in which the unfortunate prisoner is confined, will at once shew the powers and the sufferings of the author.

‘ These cells are all contained in towers, of which the walls are at least twelve, and at the bottom thirty or forty feet thick. Each has a vent-hole made in the wall; but crossed by three grates of iron; one within, another in the middle, and a third on the outside. The bars cross each other, and are an inch in thickness; and, by a refinement of invention in the persons who contrived them, the solid part of each of these meshes answers exactly to the vacuity in another; so that a passage is left to the light, of scarcely two inches, though the intervals are near four inches square.

‘ Formerly each of these caves had three or four openings, small indeed, and ornamented with the same gratings. But this multiplicity of holes was soon found to promote the circulation of the air; they prevented humidity, infection, &c. A humane governor therefore had them stopped up; and at present there remains but one, which on very fine days just admits light enough into the cell to make “darkness visible.”

‘ So in winter these dungeons are perfect ice-houses, because they are lofty enough for the frost to penetrate; in summer they are moist, suffocating stoves, the walls being too thick for the heat to dry them.

‘ Several of the cells, and mine was of the number, are situated upon the ditch into which the common sewer of the Rue St. Antoine empties itself; so that whenever it is cleared out, or

in summer after a few days continuance of the hot weather, or after an inundation, which is frequent enough both spring and autumn in ditches sunk below the level of the river, there exhales a most infectious, pestilential vapour; and when it has once entered those pigeon-holes they call rooms, it is a considerable time before they are cleared of it.

Such is the atmosphere a prisoner breathes: there, in order to prevent a total suffocation, is he obliged to pass his days, and often his nights, stuck up against the interior grate, which keeps him from approaching, as described above, too close to the hole cut in the form of a window, the only orifice through which he can draw his scanty portion of air and of light. His efforts to suck a little fresh air through this narrow tube serve often but to increase around him the fetid odour, with which he is on the point of being suffocated.

But woe to the unfortunate wretch, who in winter cannot procure money to pay for the firing, which they distribute in the King's name! Formerly a proper quantity was supplied for the consumption of each prisoner, without equivalent, and without measure. They were not used to cavil with men in every other respect deprived of all, and subjected to so cruel a privation of exercise, on the quantity of fire requisite to rarefy their blood coagulated by inaction, and to volatise the vapours condensed upon their walls. It was the will of the sovereign, that they should enjoy the benefit of this solace, or this refreshment, unrestrained as to the expence.

The intention, without doubt, is still the same; yet is the custom altered. The present governor has limited the proportion for each prisoner to six billets of wood, great or small. It is well known, that in Paris the logs for chamber use are but half the market size, being sawed through the middle: they are no more than eighteen inches in length. The economical purveyor is careful to pick out in the timber-merchants' yards the very smallest he can find, and, what is as incredible as it is true, the very worst. He chuses in preference those at the bottom of the piles, which are exhausted by time and moisture of all their salts, and for that reason thrown aside to be sold at an inferior price to the brewers, bakers, and such other trades as require a fire rather clear than substantial. Six of those logs, or rather sticks, make the allowance of four and twenty hours for an inhabitant of the Bastille.

It may be asked, what they do when this allowance is exhausted? They do as the honourable governor advises them; they put up with their sufferings.

The articles of furniture are worthy of the light by which they are exhibited, and the apartments they serve to decorate. I must first observe, that the governor contracts with the ministry to supply them; and this is one of the trifling perquisites attached to his immense revenue, which I shall take notice of presently. He may frame excuses for himself, with regard to the inconveniences

niences of the prison, because he cannot change the situation of places; he may palliate the niggardly distribution of wood, under the pretext of saving the king's money. But on the head of furniture, which is entirely his own affair, and for which he is paid, he can have neither excuse nor palliation: his parsimony in this particular is at the same time both cruel and dishonest.

Two mattresses, half eaten by the worms, a matted elbow chair, the bottom of which was kept together by pack-thread, a tottering table, a water pitcher, two pots of Dutch ware, one of which served to drink out of, and two flag-stones to support the fire, composed the inventory of mine. I was indebted only to the commiseration of the turnkey, after several months confinement, for a pair of tongs and a fire-shovel. I could not possibly procure dog-irons; and whether it may be considered as the effect of policy, or want of feeling, what the governor does not think proper to furnish, he will not suffer the prisoner to provide at his own expence. It was eight months ere I could gain permission to purchase a tea-pot; twelve before I could procure a chair tolerably steady and convenient; and fifteen ere I was allowed to replace, by a vessel of common ware, the clumsy and disgusting pewter machine they had assigned me.

The sole article I was allowed to purchase, in the beginning of my imprisonment, was a new blanket; and the manner by which I obtained this privilege was as follows:

It is well known that in the month of September the moths which prey upon woollen stuffs are transformed into butterflies. On the opening of the cave into which I was introduced, there arose from the bed, I will not say a number, or a cloud, but a large thick column, which instantly overspread the whole chamber. The sight caused me to start back with horror; when I was consoled by one of my conductors with the assurance, that before I had lain there two nights, there would not be one left.

The hours of sickness, which require the consolations of humanity, if the tender soothings of friendship be denied, are in the Bastille spent in accumulated distress.

First, as to those transitory complaints, or sudden attacks, which can only be obviated by ready assistance and immediate application, a prisoner must either be perfectly free from them, or must sink under them if they are severe; for it would be in vain to look for any immediate succour, particularly during the night. Each room is secured by two thick doors, bolted and locked, both within and without; and each tower is fortified with one still stronger. The turnkeys lie in a building entirely separate, and at a considerable distance: no voice can possibly reach them.

The only resource left is, to knock at the door; but will an apoplexy, or an hæmorrhage, leave a prisoner the ability to do it? It is even extremely doubtful, whether the turnkeys would hear the knocking; or whether, once lain down, they would think proper to hear it.

Those,

‘ Those, nevertheless, whom the disorder may not have deprived of the use of their legs and voice, have still one method left of applying for assistance. The ditch, with which the castle is surrounded, is only an hundred and fifty feet wide: on the brink of the opposite bank is placed a gallery, called the passage of the rounds; and on this gallery the centinels are posted. The windows overlook the ditch; through them, therefore, the patient may cry out for succour; and if the interior grate, which repels his breath, as was before explained, is not carried too far into the chamber; if his voice is powerful; if the wind is moderate; if the centinel is not asleep, it is not impossible but he may be heard.

‘ The soldier must then cry to the next sentry: and the alarm must circulate from one sentry to another, till it arrives at the guard-room. The corporal then goes forth to see what is the matter; and, when informed from what window the cries issue, he returns back again the same way, (all which takes up no inconsiderable time) and passes through the gate into the interior of the prison. He then calls up one of the turn-keys; and the turnkey proceeds to call up the lackey of the king’s lieutenant, who must also awaken his master, in order to get the key; for all, without exception, are deposited every night at that officer’s lodging. There is no garrison where in time of war the service is more strictly carried on than in the Bastille. Now against whom do they make war?

‘ The key is searched for: it is found. The surgeon must then be called up; the chaplain must also be roused, to complete the escort. All these people must necessarily dress themselves; so that, in about two hours, the whole party arrives with much bustle at the sick man’s chamber.

‘ They find him perhaps weltering in his blood, and in a state of insensibility, as happened to me; or suffocated by an apoplexy, as has happened to others. What steps they take, when he is irrecoverably gone, I know not: if he still possesses some degree of respiration, or if he recovers it, they feel his pulse, desire him to have patience, tell him they will write next day to the physician, and then wish him a good night.’

‘ Now this physician, without whose authority the surgeon-apothecary dare not so much as administer a pill, resides at the Tuilleries, at three miles distance from the Bastille. He has other practice: he has a charge near the king’s person; another near the prince’s. His duty often carries him to Versailles; his return must be waited. He comes at length: but he has a fixed annual stipend, whether he do more or less; and, however honest, he must naturally be inclined to find the disorder as slight as may be, in order that his visits be the less required. They are the more induced to believe his representations, inasmuch as they are apt to suspect exaggeration in the prisoner’s complaints: the negligence of his dress, the habitual weakness of his body, and the abjection no less habitual of his mind, prevent them from observing any alteration in his countenance or in his pulse;

both

both are always those of a sick man: thus he is oppressed with a triple affliction; first, of his disorder; secondly, of seeing himself suspected of imposture, and of being an object of the raillery or of the severity of the officers, for the monsters do not abstain from them even in this situation of their prisoner; thirdly, of being deprived of every kind of relief, till the disorder becomes so violent as to put his life in danger.

And even then, if they give any medicines, it is but an additional torment to him. The police of the prison must be strictly observed: every prisoner shut up by himself, by day and night, whether sick or in health, sees his turnkey, as I have before observed, only three times a day. When a medicine is brought him, they set it on the table, and leave it there. It is his business to warm it, to prepare it, to take care of himself during its operation; happy, if the cook has been so generous as to violate the rules of the house, by reserving him a little broth; happy, if the turnkey has been possessed of the humanity to bring it, and the governor to allow it. Such is the manner in which they treat the ordinary sick, or those who have strength enough to crawl from their bed to the fire-place.

But when they are reduced to the last extremity, and unable to raise themselves from their worm-eaten couch, they are allowed a guard. Now let us see what this guard is. An invalid soldier, stupid, clownish, brutal, incapable of attention, or of that tenderness so requisite in the care of a sick person. But, what is still worse, this soldier, when once attached to you, is never again permitted to leave you; but becomes himself a close prisoner. You must first, therefore, purchase his consent to shut himself up with you during your captivity; and if you recover, you must support, as well as you can, the ill-humour, discontent, reproaches, and vexation of this companion, who will be revenged on you in health for the pretended services he has rendered you in sickness. Judge now of the sincerity of D'Argenson, the lieutenant of the police, when he insisted on the temporal comforts prisoners experienced in the Bastille, and on the charity of the governors.

The whole tenor of the narrative is of the same kind. The reader will observe, that our author's descriptions are animated by the still bleeding wounds of persecution, by the reflection that he has been the innocent victim of perfidy and cruelty. But, though somewhat may be allowed for his recent escape, though humanity may severely sympathize in his sufferings, yet every true-born Briton will exult, with peculiar pleasure, on his own comparative situation. The language of faction and aspiring democracy, which has not only predicted our falling liberty, but even announced the event, will necessarily be silent, when it is remembered, that suspicion must be supported by proofs, and proofs produce a full conviction, before personal liberty can be abridged, or guilt receive its proper punishment.

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The Miscellaneous Works, in Verse and Prose, of Gorges Edmond Howard, Esq. Three Volumes. 8vo.

THIS gentleman informs us, in his preface, that the present work will 'make his publications *fifteen volumes*, four in quarto, and eleven in octavo.' The greater part, we find, consists of discourses on law and politics; and, we hope, those subjects have proved sufficiently advantageous, as there is a dreadful discount on the article of poetry. He assures us, 'but for that unfortunate talent, he might have been worth many thousands more than he has ever been possess of.' At the same time he declares himself to have been amply recompensed by the innate pleasure he felt when employed in such kind of compositions; and that he feels 'the satisfactory comfort of never having published a line in the least offensive to religion and virtue.'—Indeed a goodness of heart, no less than a singularity of manners, characterises almost every article of this *very* miscellaneous performance, in which we have odes and epigrams—three tragedies—a large collection of apophthegms and maxims, digested in alphabetical order—observations and queries on the popery laws and libels—actions and sayings of great and wise men—advice to a member of parliament; (poetical addresses from others to himself) and *other* tracts, calculated for the benefit of society.* The author's memoirs, contained in the preface, are extremely entertaining: no great elegance or accuracy of style, however, must be expected; their principal merit consists in unfolding, without any affectation of disguise, the events of his life, and the genuine sentiments of his heart. By them we find that a cacoethes scribendi has always been his predominant passion, though constantly engaged in a very laborious employment, or, as he somewhere expresses it, 'the most *insipid* of all businesses, that of an attorney.' Of this the following passage is a striking instance:

'Thus plunged in the pleasures of the imagination, it is easy to conceive, that the business or study of my profession, so diametrically opposite to them, could not fail of growing very irksome, if not quite disgusting; for if there be a being in the creation, to which, above all others, the Muses bear an especial antipathy, it must be a deep read, plodding, special pleader; nor is the sophister behindhand in his aversion to them; however, I thought, whilst I retained my occupation in the profession, the closest attention thereto was not only a moral, but a religious and indispensable duty; wherefore, as I ever

* Some of these performances have been mentioned with approbation in our former Reviews.

was a most early riser in the morning, some hours before many of the men of business in this kingdom have a thought of stirring, and but very seldom wasted an evening in the way that numbers of them do, so that in general I laboured about fourteen hours, sometimes fifteen, of the four and twenty; I determined with myself that after nine or ten at farthest in the forenoon, I would not pay any farther court to the Muses; but, alas! I found I had undertaken what I could not execute; an unfinished thought when I broke off intruded on me whilst I walked the streets, so that I have often slipped into shops and entries, and scribbled for minutes; on which account, I was actually, in the last war, seized in the Castle-yard by the centinel as a spy, and brought to the guard-room, to the high entertainment of all who heard of it: and many are the accidents my limbs have met with when in this musing mood.

The reader will sometimes smile at this gentleman's peculiarities, but he must always respect the honesty of his intentions, and benevolence of his heart. The present heterogeneous collection seems to flow from that source, though a little excusable vanity had probably some share in it. The publication was announced with a view of raising, by subscription, a sum of money for the Lying-in Hospital at Dublin; but the success by no means answered his wishes, or expectations. As the author's account of this affair, though not very happily or clearly expressed, is somewhat amusing and characteristic, we shall give it in his own words.

'I did conceive that the bare mentioning that I intended the benefit, which I might have expected by this work, for that first of charities, the Lying-in Hospital, would have brought in ten subscribers for one I have had; but, notwithstanding this my intention has been so signified these two years past and upwards, not only in dispersed printed proposals, but in advertisements in public papers at no small expences for subscriptions, and that when I was told the finances of the charity would not afford to risk advancing the expence of publishing, had offered it myself, yet not any have been procured thereby; and the number of subscribers which I have myself been able to get (not having time to solicit in person) has been so small, and the expence of publishing so heavy, that, but for my good-will to the charity, and my respect to those who gave me the honour of their names, as my proposals were not to print until three hundred subscriptions were had, I would have returned them to such of the subscribers as had paid.

Wherefore, and as I had intended a legacy for this charity in my will, but, for reasons, chose this method of giving it

in my life-time, I shall send into it one hundred and thirty sets, bound and lettered on the back, according to the published proposals, clear of all expences to it, which will produce about one hundred and six pounds for its benefit, and is almost double the amount of the subscriptions paid and to be paid; (for I am to observe, that several of the names therein are of persons to whom I had presented them) and, as I have printed much more than I purposed at the time of my proposals, I hope to be enabled to give some advantage also to some other charities or charity.

We hope our brother-subjects on the other side the Channel will wipe off this national reflection, by buying up all the bound and unbound sets of Mr. Howard's Works; and that they will not permit him to assume the merit of being the *sole* protector of the fair sex, in their most helpless and distressing situation. What an indelible stain will it fix on their characters, if they ungenerously neglect those who, in this kingdom, are universally supposed to bear towards them a most disinterested attachment!

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

A Plain Letter to the Common People of Great-Britain and Ireland, giving some fair Warning against transporting themselves to America. 12mo. 2d. Brown.

IT has for some years been a current opinion, that, as soon as the war with America should terminate, great numbers of people would be encouraged to resort thither from these kingdoms. The author of the present Letter, however, paints in a strong light the danger of such emigrations. He affirms, from his own experience, that, before the commencement of the late commotions, many persons, who had been allured by the artifices of masters of ships and kidnappers, to quit the northern parts of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and to settle in America, were actually, upon their arrival on that continent, reduced to the condition of slaves: that, contrary to express stipulation, an unexpected and exorbitant charge of pretended expences of passage was made upon them, which being absolutely unable to liquidate, they were reduced to the dreadful alternative of being either thrown into prison, or engaging themselves for a long term of years in the service of some planter: that they generally had accepted the latter, as the least horrible of the two evils; and that they were sent into remote parts of the provinces, where they were treated with all the severity usually practised towards the Negroes, and entirely deprived of the possibility of communication with their native country. The author

author presses forcibly upon the imagination of his readers the danger of similar treatment to future emigrants, and earnestly exhorts them against a measure which may terminate in the irremediable ruin of themselves and their families.

Besides the representation above mentioned, the author urges a variety of other powerful arguments, to dissuade his countrymen from all thoughts of risking their fortune in the territory of the American States. He describes the provinces, in general, as far from being entitled to the favourable opinion commonly entertained of them, in point either of produce or of climate. In some of them the heat is excessive; fevers and dysenteries are almost perpetually endemic; and the annoyance of gnats, not to mention venomous serpents, is almost intolerable. He observes, that even the more temperate are not exempt from sudden and violent vicissitudes of the atmosphere; and that all of them, in their back settlements, are exposed to the depredations of capricious savages.

Other arguments, which the author uses against emigrations, are the extreme unsettled state of the American government, and the weight of the taxes which must be imposed in the several provinces, not only for defraying the public debt, but for the support of a civil, and if not of a military, at least a naval establishment. — Upon the whole, though we think the Author of this letter has exaggerated both the moral and natural disadvantages of America, we must acknowledge that he has enforced his well-meant purpose with laudable energy; and we heartily concur with him in the homely, but honest advice, he gives his countrymen, by all means to 'look before they leap.'

A plain Reply to the Strictures of Mr. Cumberland and the Country Curate, on the Bishop of Landaff's Proposal. 4to. 2s. Murray.

The author of this tract strenuously defends the bishop of Landaff's proposals, and endeavours to obviate, not only the objections of Mr. Cumberland and the Country Curate, but of every other writer on that side of the question; insisting, that his lordship's letter is calculated to serve, if not absolutely to save, the church, in an unpropitious crisis; and expressing his astonishment, that any of the clergy, even the dignitaries themselves, should be averse to his proposals.

In the Postscript he shews, that the church of England is not supported by any direct contribution from the lords of manors, or from the patrons of livings; but by a general tax, levied by the legislative authority, on the public at large; that bishops had originally the sole right of nomination vested in them; that they parted with this right on particular occasions, and only for the lives of those by whom churches were built and endowed; that through the indolence of the bishops, and the ignorance of the people, this right was usurped by the heirs of those persons; and, in general, that patronage is not a property, but a privilege; that patrons are no more than trustees for the public, and, as such, are not to fill their own purses, by betraying the interest of the community.

From these considerations he proceeds to demonstrate the injustice, the bad policy, and the immoral tendency of bonds of resignation. It was of late years become a common method, he says, of evading the act and the oath against simony, to give a bond of resignation, under a certain penalty. After the clerk was instituted, the patron demanded, as matter of form, the resignation of the living, and the incumbent of course chose rather to pay the penalty. Thus actual perjury was committed, and the law of the land was shamefully trifled with. If this custom, continues the author, had been allowed, the property of the church would have been made the property of individuals; the clergy would have been reduced to a state of dependence, deprived of their rights, and their influence in the pulpit. But these and other ill consequences, which he mentions, have been happily prevented by a late decision in the house of lords.

A Letter of Advice, addressed to the Merchants, Manufacturers, and Traders of Great-Britain. 8vo. 6d. Kearsley.

The advice contained in this letter is, that the public in general should firmly determine against paying the tax on receipts, a tax which the author considers as extremely oppressive and reprehensible. He observes, that the names of two witnesses, subjoined to any receipt upon unstamped paper, will always prove a sufficient controul to the stratagems of the dishonest; and that, even without any witness, the hand-writing of the receiver alone may fully answer the purpose; as, though it might not establish the validity of the receipt, it would certainly, if attempted to be denied, afford unexceptionable proof of perjury. Such are the arguments used by this author, who, at the same time that he declares himself vehemently against this obnoxious tax, is no less a violent enemy to the administration which devised it.

A Speech, intended to have been spoken on Thursday, April 13, 1783. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

The supposed auditors of this speech are the electors of Westminster, assembled at the Shakspeare Tavern in April last. The author's design is to vindicate Mr. Fox's conduct in uniting with Lord North; and this purpose he attempts by arguments which, at least, are ingenious and plausible.

D I V I N I T Y.

A Sermon preached at the Meeting in Monkwell-street, at the Ordination of the Rev. James Lindsay, by the Rev. Henry Hunter, D. D. To which are added, the Questions proposed by the Rev. Andrew Kippis, D. D. F. R. S. and S. A. together with the Answers to the same, and the Charge, by the Rev. James Fordyce, D. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Buckland.

The ordination of ministers among Protestant Dissenters seems to be a tedious process: for the theological documents now before us fill a hundred pages. And on these occasions little is to be expected but pious exhortations, and common-place reflections,

tions, on the duty of Gospel ministers. Here however we find men of eminent learning and ingenuity engaged in the ceremony; and we attend to their instructions with patience and complacency. Dr. Hunter preaches on the grounds and evidences of Christianity; Dr. Kippis proposes a series of important questions to the candidate, which are answered by the latter with great propriety; and Dr. Fordyce delivers the Charge. Mr. Lindsay, the gentleman who is ordained, is called to succeed Dr. Fordyce as minister to the congregation in Monkwell-street; the doctor therefore seems to have exerted himself with peculiar energy and eloquence, in describing the character of a faithful minister, and in recommending 'the lambs of the flock, his dear young friends,' to the pastoral care of his successor.

CONTROVERSIAL.

A Reply to the Animadversions on the History of the Corruptions of Christianity, in the Monthly Review for June, 1783; with additional Observations relating to the Doctrine of the Primitive Church, concerning the Person of Christ. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

A writer in the Monthly Review, in his account of Dr. Priestley's History of the Corruptions of Christianity, begins his remarks with this tragical exclamation: 'When we review the passages we have now transcribed, we are equally grieved and astonished. We are grieved to see a writer of Dr. Priestley's eminence, and who hath long stood very high, even in the opinion of his enemies, for integrity of character, laying himself so open to the charge of perversion and misrepresentation. We are astonished at his rashness;' &c. In this publication Dr. Priestley recriminates, charging his criticiser with misconstructions, misrepresentations, and the exaggeration of some insignificant errors. He does not however confine himself to those points, which are the immediate objects of his dispute with the Reviewer; but makes some additional observations, relating to the doctrine of the primitive church, concerning the person of Christ.

To this reply he has subjoined a few small alterations, which he has found it necessary to make in his history. In our Review for March we took notice of a slight mistake, into which the doctor had fallen, in speaking of the eucharist; we therefore think ourselves obliged to subjoin his correction of it, which is as follows:

Vol. ii. p. 11, read, 'In this age the table on which it was celebrated was called the mystical table; and Theophilus, to whom Jerom (if the epistle be genuine) writes, says, that the very utensils,' &c.

The author, with a spirit of genuine candour and liberality, adds, 'For this correction I am obliged to the writer of the Critical Review. I shall be thankful for the notice of any other oversight, which in a work of this extent I did not expect to escape.'

Remarks on the Vindication of Dr. Priestley, on that Article of the Monthly Review for June 1783, which relates to the First Part of Dr. Priestley's History of the Corruptions of Christianity. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

The author of these Remarks considers seven charges, which the Monthly Reviewer has alleged against Dr. Priestley; and having pointed out some of the perversions and misrepresentations of the former, concludes, that none of his objections are of any importance. The principal point in debate is this passage in Justin Martyr's Dialogue with Trypho: *ἡ δὲ αὐτοῖς πάντα μοι δοκῶντες ὑποκρίν.* p. 267. ed. 1886.

This tract appears to be the production of a learned and ingenious writer, well acquainted with theological systems, and the writers of antiquity.

A Reply to the Vindication of Observations on the Decline of the Clerical Credit and Character. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Brett.

The first pamphlet, which appeared on this subject, was, *Observations on the Decline of the Clerical Credit and Character.* This publication was followed by a Letter to the late Rector of Bourton. The Letter occasioned a Vindication of the Observations, and the Vindication has induced the author of the Letter to publish this Reply. In this dispute, it may be naturally supposed, that the two opponents are the principal persons concerned in the affair of the rectory. But this, we are told, is not the case. The vindicator has declared, that he never had the most remote design upon the living at Bourton; and the author of the Reply affirms, that the present rector does not know who the letter writer is. We are therefore to believe, that they are volunteers, actuated by the most noble and disinterested motives; the former, by a laudable zeal for the church of England; and the latter, by a generous indignation, excited by the appearance of a publication, in which, he says, religion was made a pretence for personal malice and abuse. But whatever their motives were, the contest has produced many reciprocal invectives; and is not likely to afford much entertainment to the uninterested reader.

M E D I C A L.

Observations on Hepatic Diseases incidental to Europeans in the East-Indies. By Stephen Mathews, Surgeon in the Honourable United East-India Company's Service, &c. 8vo. 5s. Cadell.

These Observations chiefly relate to the hepatitis, putrid bilious fever, and hepatic dysentery. The descriptions seem to be accurate, and the general method of cure judicious; so that we have no hesitation in recommending them to the attention of practitioners, in similar situations. The putrid fever seems of the remittent kind; but our author first uses the cooling method, before he employs the bark: in the most urgent cases he waits for the appearance of remission, and generally wishes it to be considerable. He remarks, that petechiæ are sometimes critical. This subject has already occasioned some disputes, which

we cannot now pursue; and shall only add, that, in these situations, there are many sources of delusion, and in no instance can observation be more truly said to be fallacious. Our author's practice, in the dysentery, seems peculiarly pointed and proper; we cannot give it a greater encomium than to observe, that it very much resembles the conduct of Zimmerman. His attempt to establish the similarity between the syphilis and hepatitis, from the similar appearances of the blood, and the success of the same remedy, mercury, in both, is more exceptionable. It has, indeed, very little foundation; for, by this mode of reasoning, we could connect some of the most dissimilar diseases of the whole system. The use and the management of mercury in hepatitis are, we believe, now sufficiently understood; but we would refer those, who wish for information on this subject, to the present author.

The language is frequently perplexed, sometimes not explicit, and, in a few instances, incorrect; unless the last error be attributed to the corrector of the press, who seems, in general, to have executed his task with little attention or accuracy.

An Essay on the various Causes and Effects of the distorted Spine, and on the improper Methods usually practised to remove the Distortion: to which are added, some Observations on the Treatment of Ruptures. By T. Sheldrake, jun. 8vo. 2s. Dilly.

Mr. Sheldrake, who unites a competent knowledge of anatomy to his mechanical abilities as an instrument-maker, endeavours to recommend an improved instrument to remove distortions of the spine. Mr. Jones, some years since, proposed an instrument, which was very similar to one formerly described by Mr. Vacher of the French Academy, without acknowledging its original, though it was probably borrowed from Mr. Vacher. This machine frequently failed; and we must own, that we should, in such cases, rather prefer 'the ills we have—than fly to others that we know not of.' The improved instrument by Mr. Sheldrake is certainly free from many of the inconveniencies of that of Jones; and we are convinced, from other reasons, besides those employed in the present pamphlet, that it can have no effect in distorting the pelvis. It may therefore be cautiously used, though it ought always to be laid aside, if it give the least pain; its principles are rational, and its execution is generally proper. We need not inform our readers, that Mr. Pott has only proposed a method of curing the paralysis of the lower extremities, without any means of removing the distortion. He seems to think that it should remain; but Mr. Sheldrake is of opinion, that its removal may be safely attempted by his machine; and, with the restrictions just mentioned, we can see little objection to it.

The Observations on Ruptures are intended to point out the impracticability of curing them without proper trusses. They undoubtedly recommend those made by Mr. Sheldrake; but the superior excellence of his works must be determined by experience.

Essay on the Bite of a Mad Dog. By John Berkenbout, M.D.
8vo. 1s. 6d. Baldwin.

We have renewed our acquaintance with this lively and entertaining author, and received considerable entertainment by it. His object is to prove, that the dread of water in hydrophobia is only a symptom of the complaint, and that its removal has little tendency to restore health. 2dly, That the several preservative remedies are generally useless, sometimes dangerous or pernicious.—He has fully attained this end, and his little work is not less instructive than amusing. The solemn pedantry and pompous nonsense of physic is ridiculed with humour, and opposed with judgment; but there is a vast field yet open for his talents, and we wish him to extend his attacks. If this essay, however, appears in a second edition, and he is willing to correct some parts of it, or to enlarge his views, we would recommend to him Sauvages' *Treatise 'sur la Rage.'*—We shall extract a single paragraph from this pamphlet, as we wish it to be generally known, and firmly inculcated. 'The best medicines are often the most simple, and those which are nearest at hand. We are too apt superciliously to overlook the dictates of nature and common sense, to the discredit of our profession, and the loss of our patients. Art, chemistry, compounds and systems, are the hobby-horses of young physicians; and it is not till they have grown old in the profession, that they return to nature and Hippocrates.'

P O E T R Y.

An Essay on Modern Agriculture. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

The loyal and benevolent subject, who began his poem with
'God prosper long our noble king,

Our lives and safeties all'—

is by no means superior in these excellent qualities to our author.—Hear his concluding prayer:

'May Industry prevail, and Virtue smile,

The guardian angel of the British isle;

With Commerce may Integrity increase,

And Britons pious long be blest with peace.'

Amen and Amen.

Having thus discharged our duty to the author's morality and to our country, we must attend to the poem, which very carefully recommends several weighty concerns. A lawn, with a painted rail before the house; a running stream; a good warm stable for the horses and calves, and, we believe, excellent hay, in winter. We had almost forgotten that the corn mows are to be raised on conical stones, 'large at the basis, lessening on the top,' for fear of Norway rats. But it will not be easy to mention all the valuable hints contained in this poem.—For 'the goodness of sediment, the fruitful nature of the mud of ponds and ditches,' and similar instructions, we must refer to the work itself.

In a little more serious strain, we ought, however, to observe, that though the observations are sometimes trifling, and the

the sentiments trite, yet there is a great degree of benevolence, and many marks of tenderness and good nature, in this poem. The author seems to hint, that his mind has sought relief from the Mule when oppressed with a heavy woe, which blasted the promise of his future years. We sincerely commiserate his misfortunes, but cannot bestow very high commendations on his poetical talents. Yet the following lines are picturesque,—we had almost said beautiful;—perhaps, in a happier state of mind, they might have been improved and polished, so as to have deserved that title.—We shall insert them as a specimen.

Sometimes, as Science her fair reign extends,
And public spirit's bold attempts befriends,
We view, surpriz'd, the innovating tide,
Thro' unknown countries in new channels glide,
Thro' open'd hills the floods their currents steer,
Or roll suspended in the fields of air;
Th' affrighted Dryad, lost in wonder, sees
The white sails moving midst her mountain's trees;
Th' astonish'd traveller, with inward dread,
Now hears deep torrents rolling o'er his head;
Now rais'd on high, he casts a look below,
And sees thro' vallies borrow'd waters flow;
The vessel from the lofty cliff depends,
And, wond'rous, from the height with ease descends,
From town to town her ready way she plies,
And carriage safe at easy rate supplies.'

The State Coach in the Mire, a Modern Tale, in four Parts. By Thomas Brice. Small 4to. 1s. Scatcherd and Whitaker.

This industrious author, who, we are informed, is also a provincial printer and publisher, deserves our applause.—His limited education and obscure situation have not entirely repressed the excursions of fancy, or the efforts of genius. The poem is allegorical, and the metre Hudibrastic: it abounds with irregular rhymes, but the observations are frequently acute; and if the ear is sometimes disgusted by rhymes which are the consequence of provincial pronunciation, the mind is frequently gratified by the shrewd sagacity of the poet. The description of the coach itself, though rather too long, ought not to be omitted, on account of its original merit. It is supposed to be the speech of general Conway, which produced the dissolution of lord N—h's administration.

See, Britons, what a sad disaster,
These men have brought upon their master!
His coach, late wonder of the world,
They've split and int' a quagmire hurl'd.
The paintings fair that grac'd its pannels
Are worn away or splash'd in kennels;
And piece from piece 'tis separating,
E'en whilst we thus stand here debating.
—Here, on the left, of late was seen
The diligent American,

With

With busy Commerce on her quay,
While British bales unnumber'd lay;
But ere the coach reach'd yon rough summit,
These drivers took that pannel from it.
Now in its stead a patch appears,
Whereon the clumsy painter smears
Two armies fierce of kindred brood,
Who deluge all the scene with blood:
And e'en this patch with mud's so smeared,
The British army's almost buried.

—On this next pannel, lately shone

The Genius of the Torrid Zone,
Whose countenance express'd in smiles

The bliss of our West Indian isles.

Now in her cheeks are seams and furrows,

Which render her the queen of sorrows;

And here, behold, a hideous crack

Hath rent her robe, and broke her back.

—Here, on the right, we might behold

Hibernia with her harp of gold,

Whose silver strings appear'd to move

In notes of harmony and love;

Whilst, on this pannel, at her side,

Britannia seem'd to lift with pride.

But now the scene's annihilated;

The peaceful harp's obliterated;

The warlike drum Hibernia beats,

And calls her sons to martial feats:

In steady phalanx rang'd, appears

A troop of sturdy volunteers,

Whose sullen aspects seem to say,

Our Mother only we'll obey;

And, spite of all who dare resist her,

Own no proud mistress in her Sister.

—And here, in heart of oak, behind,

To which the coach's springs are join'd,

Two stout sea-horses plac'd astride on,

Ride British Neptune and his Triton,

Denoting Albion's boundless reign

Over the globe-encircling main.

But Neptune, see, has lost his trident;

And Triton, batter'd, looks quite frighten'd.

—And here too, carv'd in oaken stocks,

T' uphold the fore-springs and the box,

Stand Mars and Pallas, emblems fit

Of courage true and sterling wit.

But Pallas, see, hath lost her head,

And Mars holds G—rm—e's broken blade!

—Such, such, dear Briton's, is the fate

Of this once-envied coach of state

—Can

—Can any say, 'twas want of purse
 Reduc'd it to a plight so curst?
 No.—'Twas well known to each accountant,
 (Let those examine it who doubt on't)
 Sufficient cash was duly furnish'd,
 To grease its wheels and keep it burnish'd.
 I've got each item in my mind,
 And dare aver 'fore all mankind,
 One hundred millions and a surplus
 They've squander'd to this hopeful purpose!

Select Poems, and short Essays in Prose, from Dr. Watts. 12mo.
 3s. Blamire.

The moral tendency of Dr. Watts's writings in general must secure veneration to his name. His piety and benevolence are conspicuous in the present collection, which therefore cannot fail of being received by the public with complacency.

Annus Mirabilis; or, the Eventful Year Eighty-Two. By William Tasker, A. B. Second Edit. 4to. 2s. 6d. Baldwin.

This second edition is considerably more correct than the former, and has evinced what we lately observed, that Mr. Tasker's publications are, in general, too rapid. The *Georgium Sidus*, or, as it ought to be called, the *Neptune*, is not the discovery of this celebrated year, though it is added, to make wonders more wonderful. The author wished also to praise Dr. Johnson, for reasons which he can best explain; but even poetic licence could not add him to this period; so that the lines, which have already appeared in every newspaper, are subjoined to, rather than make a part of the poem.

The Order of St. Patrick. 4to. 1s. Debrett.

An Ode on the Restoration of the Rights of Ireland, not written with correctness, but, at the same time, not without spirit.

The Dismembered Empire. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

It appears that this poem was written under circumstances of such personal distress as ought to procure its author the indulgence of criticism. But its own merit co-operates so strongly with our sympathy, that we can, without any violation of justice, assign it a favourable character.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Physical Prudence, or the Quack's Triumph over the Faculty. Inscribed to Lord J. Cavendish. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

The triumph which the quacks have obtained, by the legal sanction of a licence, is celebrated in this tract. What Cæsar said to a person who did not read with propriety: 'Si cantas, male cantas; si legis, cantas,' we may apply to the present author. If it be poetry, it is very bad; if prose, it is too poetical. There is, indeed, some little appearance of irony; but, if it was intended to be ironical, the design is obscure, and the execution not happy.

Letters

Letters from a celebrated Nobleman to his Heir, never before published. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Bowen.

We have met with so many similar publications, that we were almost tempted to throw the present work aside with disdain; but a superior motive induced us to read it, and we can truly say, that we have received much pleasure from the perusal. The public will not expect us to enquire into its authenticity; and on this subject we have not bestowed a moment's reflection. The work rather consists of extracts of letters, and, in many places, of detached thoughts, sometimes in French, and sometimes in English. They are generally animated and elegant, strictly moral, and frequently entertaining. A letter at the end, to be delivered to his heir after his return from travel, and after the death of the author, supposed to be the late earl of Chesterfield, is very interesting and instructive. On the whole, the present publication deserves our commendation; though, as the Letters are addressed to a very young correspondent, the subjects are sometimes trifling.

A Letter to Dr. Toulmin, M. D. relative to his Book on the Antiquity of the World. By Ralph Sneyd, LL. B. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivington.

This writer censures, with great severity, the abusive terms, the gross invectives, the impious notions, and the speculative dreams, which he had observed in Dr. Toulmin's Dissertation on the Antiquity of the World*. He exposes the preposterous fable of Burmha or Bruma†, which, the doctor tells us, carries with it more appearance of probability than any other account of the creation: he shews, by a ludicrous theory, that it is easy to invent other visionary systems, which will appear as plausible as Dr. Toulmin's; and, lastly, he points out the fatuity of some of the doctor's principal arguments.

Calendar of the Weather for the Year 1781, with an Introductory Discourse on the Moon's Influence at common Lunations in general; and on the Winds at Eclipses in particular, founded on a regular Series of Observations. By B. Hutchinson, Vicar of Kimbolton, and Prebendary of Lincoln. 8vo. Fielding.

This very sensible and candid observer concludes, both from reason and observation, that the moon, at its conjunctions, has little influence on the weather; its attraction of the air being frequently affected or counteracted by various other causes. The appearance of the moon,—the pointed and obtuse horns, are to be attributed to the state of the atmosphere; and the consequences of these appearances will have little connection with the planet itself.

The observations on the winds, about the time of the eclipses, were first suggested by Lord Bacon, who thought that they might, in some degree, determine the question concerning the influence of the moon on the weather. Our author has therefore observed, with particular attention, the weather two days

* Crit. Rev. vol. I. p. 34.

† Vide Hist. of Relig. Cerem. vol. iii.

previous and subsequent to that on which the eclipse happened. Out of seventeen successive eclipses, there are but two instances of high winds pointedly at the time. In six instances, there was no wind in the period observed; and in nine there was wind, but at such different times, that it could afford little foundation to determine the question.

The Calendar is kept in the usual manner, but the observations on the barometer and thermometer should have been more frequent. The situation of the latter must have been exceptionable, for 80 and 81 are frequent numbers; but, during the heat of the last sultry summer, a good thermometer, in a proper situation, did not exceed 75: the lowest point of the thermometer was 17, the highest 82. The dryness of March and October of the year 1781, were very considerable; but, in the whole year, 21.65 inches of rain fell, though the average quantity of six years, in a similar situation, was only 19.14 inches, according to Derham. Our author is therefore surprised at the uncommon effects of drought which appeared in this year; but accounts, in our opinion, very satisfactorily for it. The barometer on February 27th, 1781, fell to 28.6; and it is remarkable, that in the southern parts of this island, we have been informed, it was at this point, the 9th of February last, the day after the most violent commotions at Messina. In both cases, this remarkable fall of the mercury was attended with violent gusts of wind.

Method of constructing Vapor Baths, so as to render them of small Expence, and commodious Use, in private Families; with a Design and Description of a convenient Hot Water Bath. By James Playfair, Architect. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This method of our author is, indeed, cheap and convenient. The disagreeable circumstances attending public baths, as well as the expence, often preclude their use, when most wanted. We would, therefore, strongly recommend the plans of Mr. Playfair, though the description of the two last plates is remarkably deficient. In the form of a pamphlet, like this, there is little room for censure or praise. He recommends as little water as possible, both from convenience, and the practice of the ancients. If Archimedes, he observes, had not used a small bath, he would not have found the gradual elevation of the water, as he stepped in; and consequently the component parts of Dionysius's crown would have been still unknown.

Stenography: or, the most easy and concise Method of writing Short-Hand. By M. Nash. 4to. 10s. 6d. Richardson.

The variety of alphabets of this kind leave the learner little trouble but that of choice. They have all peculiar advantages and disadvantages; for what is gained in dispatch, is always lost in distinctness.

The greater number of systems are fully equal to the task of following an extempore oration; though few, except in the hands of a very skillful artist, can copy the more condensed substance of a premeditated one, or the more rapid articulation

of a reader. It is therefore probable that, in either view, much is not gained by a choice; and that any system, written with readiness and accuracy, will answer the purpose. Distinctness should be in general a very material object; for it is much more easy to write with dispatch, than to read it with ease when written.

Mr. Nash's alphabet is simple and clear; but, though he objects to points in particular places for the vowels, the distinction of many of his letters depend on points. It is certain that, in taking the pen from the paper much time is lost; but when the vowels are formed by the *position* of the succeeding letter, rather than by points, distinctness will fully compensate for the loss. We do not, on the whole, perceive any great improvement in this work, though there are no material defects in it. We would, however, recommend to every learner not to study arbitrary marks in any author. He may introduce them by degrees; and while they are of his own invention they will never be forgotten. We ourselves can, by this means, read, with ease, the short-hand, which we have not seen or practised these fifteen years.

The History of the Life of Tamerlane the Great. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Law.

This translation is superior to what had before been published of the Life of Tamerlane, and may afford both entertainment and instruction.

Laws for regulating Bills of Exchange, Inland and Foreign. By J. Blagrove. 12mo. 1s. Nicoll.

Beside the Laws of Exchange, this little manual contains abstracts of the several acts lately passed, for levying a stamp-duty on promissory notes, drafts, receipts, &c. with the additional duties upon bonds, bills of sale, wills, powers of attorney, ecclesiastical preferments, &c. To these are subjoined forms of promissory notes, bills of exchange, indorsements, and receipts, as prescribed by the late acts of parliament. The compilation appears to be made with care, and may, undoubtedly, be useful to people in business.

A Description of the Island of Madeira. 12mo. 1s. Kearley.

This description of the island is accompanied with an account of the manners and customs of the inhabitants. The whole is comprised in exceeding small compass; but its shortness is, we doubt not, compensated by its fidelity.

An Account of the Loss of the Grosvenor Indiaman. 8vo. 1s. Nourse.

This account, which is published with the approbation of the Court of Directors, is founded upon the report given by Alexander Dalrymple, esq. and contains a circumstantial narrative of the melancholy event, with the subsequent history of the survivors.

The Trial of Lieutenant Colonel Cockburne, late Governor of the Island of St. Eustatia, &c. 4to. 3s. Faulder.

The issue of this trial has confirmed the suspicion that had, from the beginning, been entertained of colonel Cockburne's delinquency at the last capture of St. Eustatia.